



## ENGLISH LOANWORDS IN INDONESIAN AND THAI

Loanwords are very influential in language learning because learners have a tendency to pronounce or write target language's words based on the corresponding loanwords in their first languages. For this reason, research on English loanwords in both Thai and Indonesian is a potential source for Thai and Indonesian language learning, and even English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning in Thailand and Indonesia. The objective of this work is to identify the differences and similarities between English loanwords in Thai and those in Indonesian as well as to facilitate a detailed exploration of how English loanwords are shaped by the linguistics of Southeast Asian languages.

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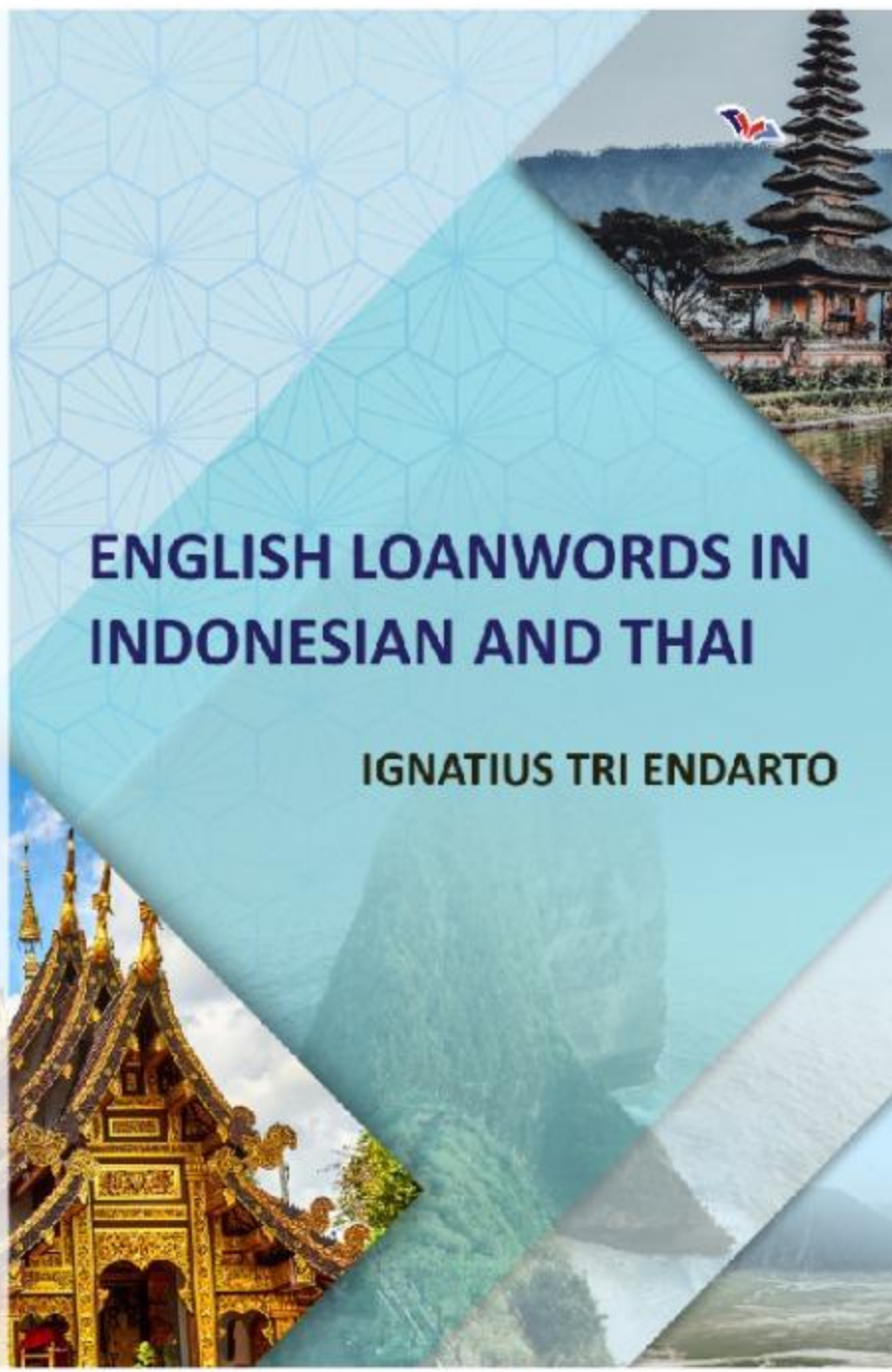
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IGNATIUS TRI ENDARTO

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**Ignatius Tri Endarto**

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IN INDONESIAN AND THAI**

**Ignatius Tri Endarto**

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## PREFACE

All languages are subject to changes. Many of the changes are brought about by language contact. In fact, the more globalized a language is, the more inclined it is to be influenced by other languages and, similarly, the more traces it tends to leave on the other languages it is in contact with.

English is a global lingua franca currently used and taught in a large number of countries where it functions as a second or foreign language. Those countries include Indonesia and Thailand, both of which are located in Southeast Asia. Both Indonesian and Thai languages have borrowed considerable numbers of words from English, and those words have become integral parts of their lexicons.

As an English language teacher in Indonesia, I am always fascinated by not only how languages can possess distinctive linguistic features but also how they can flexibly interact with and affect each other. My fascination grew even bigger when I stayed in Thailand for two and a half years. In that exotic and friendly country, for the first time I learned Thai—my fourth language—to probably pre-intermediate proficiency. It was fun yet challenging for me, since Thai and Indonesian languages are quite dissimilar in their characteristics. Despite all the challenges, it was an eye-opening experience which has enlightened my understanding of linguistics.

Surprisingly, learning Thai has also led me to a better understanding of not only English but also my mother tongue: Indonesian. In the midst of all the differences characterizing those three languages,

there are some similarities which always drew my attention. They are a list of words borrowed from English into both Indonesian and Thai. For me, examining those English loanwords could somehow give some clues about how English has come into contact with both Indonesian and Thai as well as how the linguistic systems of the three languages differ from and bear a resemblance to one another.

The curiosity motivated me to write a master's thesis on the phonological and morphological study of English loanwords in Indonesian and Thai. This work is a revised version of that master's thesis which was defended at the Department of Linguistics of Naresuan University. For readers, I hope this book can provide a brief linguistic description of how English as a global lingua franca has left its traces on Southeast Asian languages, particularly Indonesian and Thai.

Yogyakarta, May 2022

Ignatius Tri Endarto

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# CHAPTER I



# CHAPTER I

## THE AIM OF THE WORK

This chapter outlines the introduction to the book and why it was written. It consists of five parts, namely:

1. Background
2. Scope and Limitation
3. Significance of the Work
4. How Loanwords Are Examined in this Book
5. Definition of Terms

### A. Background

English has become a prominent language widely spoken in many countries around the world, either as the first language, or as a second language. As people can now easily travel to other countries and communicate with others through various kinds of media, language contact inevitably happens. This situation results in the absorption of a wide range of vocabulary from one language into another. English has long been recognized as the language of international communication from which words in many other languages are borrowed.

According to Daulton (2008), languages are always greedy inasmuch as they expand their vocabularies mainly through borrowing from other languages. Languages are dynamic things which are influenced by a number of factors, such as information exchange, cultural contact, and developments in science and

technology. When a language has no term for something new, normally that language will borrow words from other languages. Words that are borrowed usually undergo some changes so as to suit the linguistic features of the new language. As those loanwords become more frequently used by their speakers, they often turn out to be native-like words in that new language and sometimes even replace the use of previously more common native words.

In most Asian countries such as Thailand and Indonesia, English is recognized as a foreign language. However, it is known that this language exerts a strong influence and is seen as a prestigious language in the two countries (Rungruang, 2008; Rachmiati, 2011). This fact can be seen from the dictionaries of both languages each of which contains a considerable number of English loanwords. Thai and Indonesian have been absorbing a copious number of words, especially those in the modern sectors, from the English lexicon. More importantly, some of the loanwords have turned out to be integral parts of the Thai and Indonesian lexicons and are now commonly found in daily conversation as well as in written texts.

Thai (central Thai) is a member of the Tai language family, a subgroup of the Kadai (Kam-Tai) family. This language functions as the official language of Thailand. It is the language used by the government and mass media and is also the one taught in schools. Hudak (2009, pp. 660-662) stated that from an estimated population of 65 million people living in Thailand in mid-2007, approximately 52 million people or around 80 % of the total number of people spoke Thai.

Historically, Thailand is the only nation in Southeast Asia that has remained free from western colonial rule. However, relationships with western countries have long been established by the kings of Thailand, and thus English has been spoken by some Thais in the kingdom for a hundred years or more. As stated by Mishra (2010), many former kings of Thailand, such as King Mongkut (1851-1868), King Chulalongkorn (1868-1910), and King Vajirayudh (1910-1926), were proficient in English and had passion for traditional English literature. It is also said that King Mongkut even wanted the royalty to be trained in English, while King Vajirayudh was once educated at the Royal Military College, Sandhurst and Christchurch College, Oxford.

Indonesian is a standard variety of Malay, a member of the Western Malayo-Polynesian which is a branch of the Austronesian language family (Tadmor, 2009, p. 791). This language is recognized as the official language of Indonesia. There are over 740 other different regional languages and dialects also spoken in the country, so for many people, Indonesian is not their first language. However, the Indonesian language is taught in schools and used as the official language of government and in the national mass media.

Before Indonesia gained its independence in 1945, this country experienced some western colonization. Its first contact with westerners took place at the beginning of the sixteenth century when the Europeans first arrived in Maluku, an eastern part of Indonesia. Even though the original colonizers variously spoke Portuguese or Dutch, the English language has been known in

this country since the arrival of Sir Francis Drake in 1577 (Ricklefs, 2001, p. 33).

Thai and Indonesian have some differences in their linguistic features. The former is tonal whereas the latter is non-tonal. Thai is a mostly monosyllabic language while Indonesian is typically polysyllabic. There are some Thai phonemes that do not exist in Indonesian and vice versa. These two languages also have several different phonotactic rules. This situation may result in different spoken forms between English loanwords in Thai and those in Indonesian.

With the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), the numbers of Indonesian students in Thailand and Thai students in Indonesia are increasing. Hence there is a growing need for Thai language teaching to Indonesians and Indonesian language teaching to Thais, and for linguistic studies which compare the two languages.

Loanwords are very influential in language learning because language learners, especially beginners whose native language has many words cognate with the target language, will tend to pronounce or write those words by following the rules of their native language instead of the target language. Many studies have been done on the importance of English loanwords in Thai (Gandour, 1979; Bickner, 1986; Nacaskul, 1986; Kenstowich & Suchato, 2006; Rungruang, 2008; Lohakart, 2009; Udomwong, 1978; Raksaphet, 1991; Panlay, 1997; Sujaduk, 2005; and Wongsukum, 2005) and also in Indonesian (Jones, 1984; Jones & Indonesian Etymological Project, 2007; Widayaningsih, 2010; Rachmiati, 2011; Susilowati, 2012; Da Silva, 2013; Murphy, 1968;

Eddy, 1989; Jumariah, 1996; Sayogie, 2009; Srikandi, 2010; and Loriania, 2012), but there are none on the comparison between the loanwords in these two languages.

The comparison between the Thai and Indonesian adaptation of English loanwords is the subject of the current study. Since these two languages have both differences and similarities in several aspects, a careful comparative study is considered to be of interest, linguistically.

## **B. Scope and Limitation**

This book examines the borrowing of simple words and their associated meanings, and the borrowing of complex words accompanied by replacement of one or more native morphemes for morphemes in the borrowed words. As this study focuses on the phonological and morphological aspects of loanwords, the types of borrowing that are more meaning-related, namely loan translation and semantic loan, are excluded from the analysis.

The loanwords listed and analyzed in this study are those which are borrowed into both Thai and Indonesian. This study excludes English loanwords that exist only in one of the two. Since there have been many studies scrutinizing tones of English loanwords in Thai and due to the fact that Indonesian does not have tones as its contrastive feature, the phonological analysis in this study focuses on vowel and consonant changes. However, the tones of English loanwords in Thai will still be noted down in the phonetic transcription as they are an important distinctive feature in this language. Moreover, this study places more emphasis on the analysis of the standard speech rather than the casual one.



### **C. Significance of the Work**

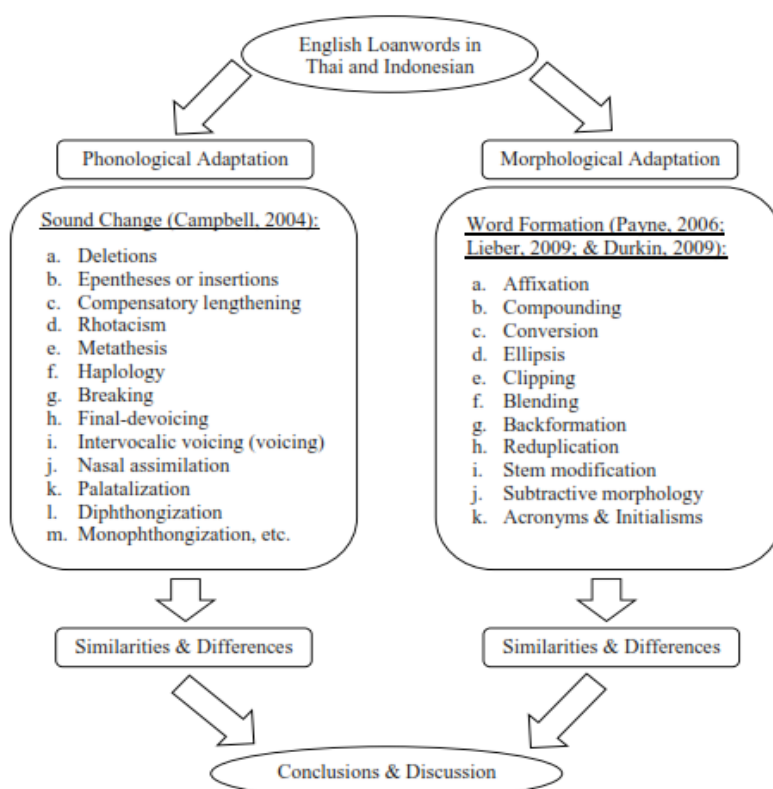
The significance of this work comprises the following points:

1. It provides knowledge of how English loanwords in Thai and Indonesian are different or similar in terms of their phonological and morphological changes.
2. It might become a useful source for the practice of teaching Thai to Indonesians, teaching Indonesian to Thais, and teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) in both Thailand and Indonesia.

### **D. How Loanwords Are Examined in this Work**

As Thai and Indonesian use completely different writing systems, it was necessary for all the English loanwords in this book to be converted into phonetic-transcribed form. It applies to all levels of analysis—both phonological and morphological levels.

To find out the differences and similarities between English loanwords in Thai and those in Indonesian, the collected data in this book were analyzed using the following framework:



*Figure 1.1*  
*Framework of Data Analysis*

As seen in the figure above, the framework of data analysis in this book can be further expounded as follows:

1. Loanwords were grouped into two types: monomorphemic & polymorphemic loanwords.
  - a. Monomorphemic loanwords were analyzed phonologically by using the categorization of sound changes proposed by Campbell (2004).
  - b. Polymorphemic loanwords were analyzed morphologically using the categorization of word formation proposed by Payne (2006), Lieber (2009), & Durkin (2009).

2. The morphological and phonological adaptations of English loanwords in Thai and those in Indonesian were compared.
3. Conclusions were drawn based on the comparison.

#### **E. Definition of Terms**

In order to elucidate some terms that are specific to this study, the definitions are provided as follows:

1. Loanword: a term that includes what Durkin (2009) defines as *loanword* and *loan blend*.
  - a. Loanword is the borrowing of a word and its associated meaning, or an element of its meaning which often shows some adaptation to the linguistic characteristics of the borrowing language.
  - b. Loan blend is the borrowing of complex words accompanied by replacement of one or more native morphemes for morphemes in the borrowed words.
2. Phonological Adaptation: any sound changes that occur as a result of the borrowing process of a word. The types of phonological adaptation that are analyzed in this book are changes in vowels and consonants.
3. Morphological Adaptation: any changes in the morphological form (word formation) of a loanword. Morphological adaptation typically involves more than one morpheme; therefore, they occur only in polymorphemic words.
  - a. Monomorphemic Word: a word that is made of one single morpheme.
  - b. Polymorphemic Word: a word that consists of more than one morpheme.

# CHAPTER II



## **CHAPTER II**

### **ENGLISH IN SOUTHEAST ASIA**

This chapter talks about how English came to Southeast Asia and its relation to Southeast Asian languages. The topics embraced in this chapter can be outlined as follows.

1. The History of English in Southeast Asia
2. English and Southeast Asian Languages

#### **A. The History of English in Southeast Asia**

The history of English in Southeast Asia began with its introduction into the subregion during the 17th century and it later became the most prominent language of colonization (Vu, 2012). In the Philippines, English was adopted due to the American colonization, whereas in Singapore, Myanmar, Malaysia, and Brunei, it was introduced through the British colonization (Kirkpatrick, 2010; Vu, 2012). On the contrary, the other Southeast Asian countries, namely Indonesia, Thailand, Laos, Vietnam, and Cambodia, experienced neither American nor British colonization. However, English is still recognized as the most well-known foreign language in those countries due to the driving factors of globalization such as international tourism, educational mobility, and commerce (Kirkpatrick, 2010; Low & Ao, 2018).

The ways Southeast Asian people use English can be categorized into two main groups, namely English as a second language (ESL) as in countries which are former American or

British colonies (the Philippines, Singapore, Myanmar, Malaysia, and Brunei) and English as a foreign language (EFL) as in countries like Indonesia, Thailand, Laos, Vietnam, and Cambodia.

In these Southeast Asian ESL countries, English has been used as a medium of instruction marked and initiated with the establishment schools such as Singapore Free School and Penang Free School. Their use of English has undergone indigenization. For instance, Singlish (Singapore English) has become one of the native tongues of people in Singapore. In Brunei, English is used as an important medium of instruction along with Malay. In the Philippines, English has been used as a medium of education since the time the US took control of the colonial power over the area. Akin to that in Singapore, the use of English in the Philippines has also become indigenized to what is now known as the Philippine English or Tagalog English.

On the contrary, EFL countries in Southeast Asia (Indonesia, Thailand, Laos, Vietnam, Cambodia, and East Timor) do not declare English as their official language. However, English still plays an increasingly important role in these countries as a *lingua franca* for their international affairs.

## **B. English and Southeast Asian Languages**

Southeast Asia is located southeast of the Indian subcontinent, west of New Guinea, north of Australia, and between the Pacific Ocean and the Indian Ocean. According to Harme (2009, as cited in Vu, 2012), this subregion spans over 4,506,500 km<sup>2</sup>, comprising the mainland peninsula (Thailand, Cambodia, Laos, Vietnam, and Myanmar) and the maritime zone (Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Brunei, Singapore, and East Timor).

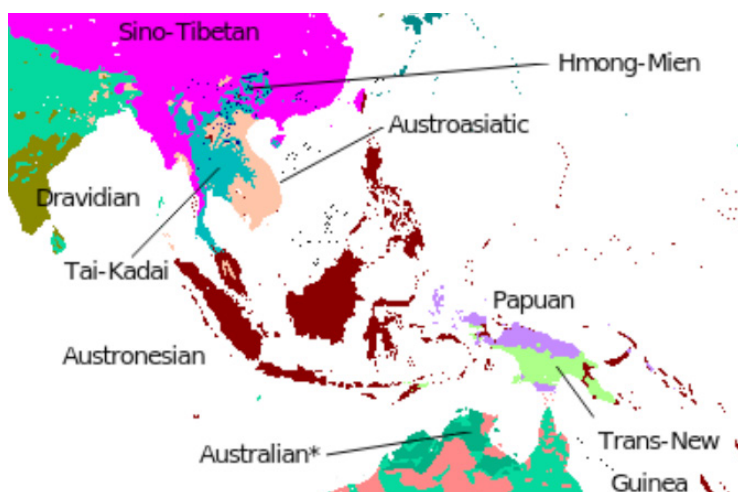


Figure 2.1

*Language Families in Southeast Asia*

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With a total of 11 countries situated in this subregion, Southeast Asia becomes a melting pot of different cultures and languages. It is the place where at least five different indigenous language families with thousands of languages can be found. As stated by Vu (2012), those language families are Austronesian (e.g., Indonesian, Malay, Philippine languages); Tai-Kadai (Thai, Lao); Austro-Asiatic (e.g., Mon, Khmer, Vietnamese); Sino-Tibetan (e.g., Burmese); and Papuan.

In Indonesia, for instance, there are around 700 languages spoken by approximately 200 ethnic groups (Hadisantosa, 2010). In fact, Indonesia is the country with the second highest linguistic diversity in the world (Eberhard et al., 2019). In the Philippines, there are approximately 150 languages spoken by slightly more than 81 million people (Bolton, 2006, as cited in Vu, 2012). In Malaysia, there are around 26 million people speaking





areas to meet people who speak several languages and can code-switch very easily. This multilingual background shapes how English is adopted by the people in the subregion.

English comes from a distinct language family called Indo-European, specifically the West Germanic languages, containing relatively different linguistic systems from those in Southeast Asia. As a result, when English is embraced by the people in the subregion, it undergoes not only mere adoption but also adaptations or modifications to adjust to the linguistic systems of the local languages.

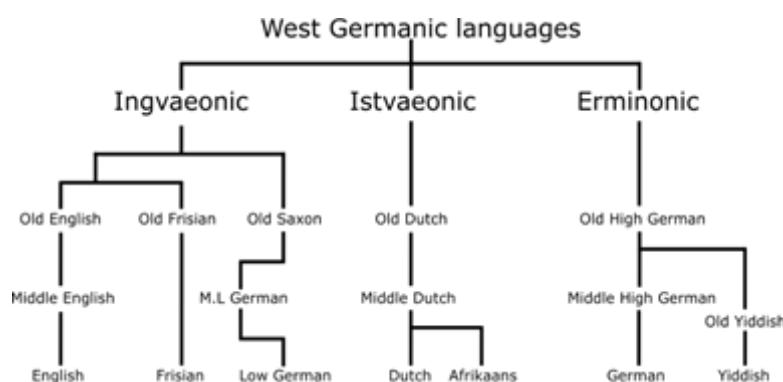


Figure 2.3

*English and Its Language Family*

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Regardless of its position as a second language in the Philippines, Singapore, Brunei, and Malaysia, or as a preferred foreign language in Indonesia, Thailand, Myanmar, Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos, English is increasingly gaining its status as one of the dominant languages in Southeast Asia. This status has been legitimized by the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) which declares English as its working language and

lingua franca for its members (Kirkpatrick, 2010; Vu, 2012). As a result, Southeast Asian languages have borrowed huge numbers of English words into their vocabularies, which will be discussed further in the later chapters.

# CHAPTER III



## CHAPTER III

### UNDERSTANDING LOANWORDS

#### *Overview*

This chapter reviews theories and concepts with the aim of understanding the nature of loanwords. The topics covered in this chapter are outlined as follows:

1. Loanwords
2. Types of Borrowing
3. Process of Borrowing
4. Factors Triggering Borrowing
5. Sound Change as Phonological Adaptation
6. Word formation as Morphological Adaptation

#### **A. Loanwords**

Loanwords, also referred to in general as lexical borrowing, normally come up in a language through culture contacts. Whenever culture contacts between speakers of distinct languages occur, those speakers will borrow words from other languages in order to denote things, processes, and ways of thinking, behavior, or organization, for which there is no word or phrase available in their native languages (Robins, as cited in Rachmiati, 2011, p. 9).

According to Durkin (2009, p. 44), borrowed words are mostly monomorphemic, but some others are polymorphemic. Monomorphemic words are those which consist of only one

morpheme, while polymorphemic are those comprising of more than one morpheme. The given example of monomorphemic loanwords is the English word *friar* which was borrowed from Old French, whereas the polymorphemic ones are exemplified by the English *municipality*, a borrowed word from French *municipal* and *-ité*.

Daulton (2012) claimed that lexical borrowing seems to virtually exist in all languages even though the amount may vary greatly. Through lexical borrowing, the lexicon of a language grows and develops from time to time.

Borrowed words tend to undergo some change phonologically or morphologically in accordance with the linguistic features of the borrowing language (Durkin, 2009, pp. 177-178). The change may take place either subsequently or at the time of borrowing.

## **B. Types of Borrowing**

Borrowing is the transference of linguistic elements from one language, which is usually called *donor language*, to another (Durkin, 2009, pp. 132-133). It happens as a result of language contact and is actually an almost unavoidable consequence of it. Words that have been borrowed into a language usually undergo changes and developments which are different from their previous forms in the donor language.

Durkin (2009, pp. 134-139) further divides lexical borrowing into four types. The first two types (loanwords and loan blends) are the ones to be scrutinized in this research.

### **1. Loanwords**

Loanword is the borrowing of a word and its associated meaning, or an element of its meaning. Loanwords usually

show adaptation to the phonological system of the borrowing language. For instance, in English, the word *phase* /feɪz/ is a loanword from the French *phase* /faz/. Loanwords may also go through adaptation to the inflectional morphology of the borrowing language, for example, many nouns borrowed into English are pluralized with -s or -es. As a loanword gets more frequently used in the borrowing language, it may become either less similar to the original word in the donor language through further adaptation in the borrowing language or internal change in the donor language, or become more similar to it through remodeling of the previously naturalized form.

## 2. Loan Blends

Loan blends are the borrowing of complex words accompanied by replacement of one or more native morphemes for morphemes in the borrowed words. One example of loan blends is the English *neurotize/neurotise* (to provide with new nerve fibers or nerves) which is a borrowing from the French *neurotiser* where the English -ize or -ise replaces the French -iser.

## 3. Loan Translations

Loan translation, which is also called *calque*, is a word or expression borrowed from another language by literal (word-for-word) translation. Rather than import the word or expression directly, speakers of the borrowing language analyze the parts and replace them with similar native forms. An example of this is the English *ready-to-wear* which is a loan translation of the French *prêt-à-porter*.



#### 4. Semantic Loans

Semantic loan is the extension of a word's meaning due to the process of borrowing a new meaning from a partly synonymous word in another language. The two words may have similar forms, but often not be related historically. The German *realisieren* and English *realize* are historically not related, but they were partly synonymous. The English *realize* has two meanings: "to become aware of something" and "to make something come true", whereas the German *realisieren* at first only meant the latter. Semantic loan happened as the German *realisieren* borrowed the second meaning of *realize* in English, and nowadays it also means "to become aware of something".

### C. **Process of Borrowing**

As stated before, borrowing happens as a result of culture, particularly language, contact. The borrowing of a word is a complex process which occurs in a chain of events. Kemmer (2013) describes the process of borrowing as follows:

1. A word first comes to a borrowing language as a foreign word. Usually, there are a number of speakers of the borrowing language who have a knowledge of the donor language. Those people are the ones who are very likely to first adopt the words into the borrowing language. Bilingual speakers, in most cases, tend to pronounce those words similarly or maybe in the same way as they are pronounced in the donor language.

2. As time passes by, when more speakers of the borrowing language get familiar with the words, they become widely spread and frequently spoken by the majority of the population. People who do not know about the donor language can understand and even use the words in their speech. The words do not sound foreign anymore to the speakers of the borrowing language. At this level, they can be considered as borrowed or loanwords.
3. Not all foreign words can turn into loanwords – only those which are accepted and become widely spoken by the society. Through conventionalization, those words progressively adopt the sounds and other features of the borrowing language. The longer and more frequently a loanword is used, the more it resembles the native words of the borrowing language.

#### **D. Factors Triggering Borrowing**

In line with Sapir (1921), since languages are akin to cultures, they often necessitate the speakers' contact, either direct or indirect, with those of nearby or culturally dominant languages. When there is a contact between neighboring communities, there is often some kind of linguistic interaction. The directions of interaction between two languages in contact are often asymmetric, in which more words are borrowed from one language to the other and less for the vice versa.

There are numerous factors that make speakers of a language borrow words from other languages. According to Durkin (2014), historical events and developments, such as religious conversion, conquest, and settlement, are some among the many.

Other factors that might actuate borrowing are needs, tourism, economy, science, and technology development (Eddy, 1989, p. 39; Lohakart, 2009, p. 15). Kemmer (2013) adds that borrowing is also usually triggered by the advantage of power, prestige and/or wealth possessed by the source language community.

As Durkin (2014) puts it, the language of a dominant community tends to exert more influence on those of less dominant communities. Chinese, for example, has a copious number of words borrowed into Japan and Korean. Since the invasion by the Normans, English has quite a lot of words borrowed from the French vocabulary. When wine-culture was first learned by the early Germanic peoples from their contact with the Romans, the Latin word *vinum* was undeniably adopted for naming the beverage (English *wine*, German *Wein*). When Christianity was brought into England, the words such as *angel* and *bishop* were also introduced into English. To this day, Thai, Khmer, Burmese, and Indonesian unmistakably contain the trace of Sanskrit that came along with Hindu-Buddhism centuries ago. Hence, borrowing and language contact are inevitable phenomena in the developments of cultures which progress hand in hand with civilizations.

#### **E. Sound Change as Phonological Adaptation**

To be transmitted from one language to another, loanwords usually undergo phonological adaptation. This term covers various processes such as the substitution of a sound by another, the loss of one sound, or even the insertion of a new sound. Campbell (2004, pp. 33-45) refers to these as *sound changes*,

which are roughly divided into 25 types, as listed in the following points:

## 1. Deletions

### a. Syncope

Syncope is the deletion of a medial vowel (not initial or final) of a word. When a medial vowel of a word is deleted, it is said that the word is syncopated. An example of syncope is the deletion of the unstressed medial vowel in the Latin *populus* /pɔp**u**lus/ which was borrowed into the French *peuple* /pə**p**le/ (Campbell, 2004, p. 33).

### b. Apocope

A word is said to be apocoped if its final sound, usually a vowel, is deleted. An example of this is the final /e/ in Latin words which was usually deleted in Spanish in the environment VC\_#, if C is dental /l, r, n, s, θ/ or approximant /j/, as in /pane/ > /pan/ (bread) and /sole/ > /sol/ (sun) (Campbell, 2004, p. 34).

### c. Aphaeresis (or Apheresis)

Aphaeresis is the deletion of the initial sound, usually a vowel, of a word. Aphaeresis is often called *initial vowel loss*. An example of Aphaeresis is the deletion of initial vowel of the Latin *acaso* /a**k**azo/ in the Spanish *caso* /kaso/ (Campbell, 2004, p. 35).

## 2. Epentheses or Insertions

### a. Prothesis

Prothesis is also often called *word-initial epentheses*. It is the insertion of a sound at the beginning of a word, for

instance, the insertion of an initial vowel in the Spanish *escuela*/*eskuela*/, which was borrowed from the Latin *scola*/*skola*/ (Campbell, 2004, p. 35).

b. Anaptyxis (Anaptyctic)

Anaptyxis is a process where an extra vowel is inserted between two consonants. The inserted vowel is often called *svarabhakti* or *parasitic* vowel. An example of this is the insertion of a short copy of the preceding vowels between two consonants in the words in eastern Finland dialects, such as /jalka/ > /jalaka/ (foot) and /kolme/ > /kolome/ (three) (Campbell, 2004, p. 36).

c. Excrescence

Excrescence is the insertion of a consonant between other consonants, usually this process results in phonetic sequences that are easier to pronounce, for example, the insertion of the sound /b/ into the Proto-Indo-European /*amrtos*/ which was borrowed into the Greek /*ambrotos*/ (immortal) (Campbell, 2004, p. 36).

d. Paragoge

Paragoge is the addition of a sound to the end of a word. In some Spanish dialects, sometimes a final /e/ is added to words which end in /d/: /huesped/ > /huespede/ (guest) (Campbell, 2004, p. 37).

3. Compensatory Lengthening

Compensatory lengthening is the lengthening of a segment, usually a vowel, to compensate a sound which is lost. An example of this is the lengthening of the sound /a/

as a result of the loss of the sound /g/ in the Proto-Celtic /magl/ which was borrowed into the Old Irish /ma:l/ (prince) (Campbell, 2004, p. 38).

#### 4. Rhotacism

Rhotacism is a process where the sound /s/ (or /z/) becomes /r/, it usually occurs between glides or vowels. Often some cases of rhotacism undergo an intermediate phase of /s/ > /z/ > /r/. The Proto-Germanic /maizōn/ is known for undergoing rhotacism to become the Old English /māra/ (which has now become the modern English *more* /mɔ:r/) (Campbell, 2004, p. 38).

#### 5. Metathesis

This process is a change where sounds exchange positions with each other within a word. Some examples of metathesis are words in Spanish dialects: /pobre/ > /probe/ (poor), /esquina/ > /sequina/ (corner), and /nadie/ > /naide/ (nobody) (Campbell, 2004, p. 39).

#### 6. Haplology

This is a change where there is a simplification of a repeated sequence of sounds to become a single occurrence. The Latin /nūtritrix/ once underwent haplology and finally became /nūtrix/ (nurse) (Campbell, 2004, p. 39).

#### 7. Breaking

Breaking is the diphthongization of a short vowel in certain contexts. In Old English, there is breaking of /i/ > /io/, /e/ > /eo/, and /a/ > /ea/ before /h/, or before /l/ or /r/ followed by a consonant, as in /kald/ > /keald/ (cold), and /

erθe/ > /eorpe/ (earth) (Campbell, 2004, p. 40).

8. Final-devoicing

Final-devoicing is the change of the final sound of a word (or a syllable) from voiced to voiceless. A very common case is the devoicing of final obstruents or stop sounds. Some languages have the devoicing of final sonorants, such as [l], [r], [w], [j], and even final vowels. In Kaqchikel (Mayan), /l, r, w, j/ > voiceless / \_ #, for instance, [a:l] > [a:l̥] (child), [kar] > [kar̥] (fish), [kow] > [kow̥] (hard), and [xa:j] > [xa:j̥] (house) (Campbell, 2004, p. 40).

9. Intervocalic Voicing (or Voicing in General)

In addition to devoicing, there is also voicing in which sounds, usually between vowels, become voiced. This usually affects stops, fricatives, or obstruents. Sometimes voicing also happens not only between vowels but also with the glides /w/ and /j/. In some languages there is voicing of stops after nasals or after any voiced sounds, while in some others there is voicing of other sounds preceding voiced sounds. The example of this process is the voicing of the voiceless stops between vowels in the transition from Latin to Spanish, as in /lupu/ > /lobo/ (wolf), /vita/ > /vida/ (life), and /fiku/ > /higo/ (fig) (Campbell, 2004, p. 40).

10. Nasal Assimilation

In some languages, nasals may change following the articulation of stop sounds after them, such as /np/ > [mp], /mt/ > [nt], /nk/ > [ŋk] and so on (Campbell, 2004, p. 41). As seen in the given examples, the assimilation tends to be in the

form of change in the place of articulation—alveolar>bilabial, bilabial>alveolar, alveolar>velar, etc.—depending on the places of articulation of the subsequent stops.

#### 11. Palatalization

Palatalization often occurs after or before /i/ and /j/, or in some languages before other front vowels. There are two common types of palatalization. One is the change occurring toward velar or alveolar sounds which later become palato-alveolar sounds as in /k/ > /č/, /t/ > /č/, /s/ > /ʃ/ and so on. For instance, the Spanish /leče/ (milk) is historically a palatalized form of the former /lakte/. The second type is the palatalization of a consonant as a secondary manner of articulation. For example, in Finnish, consonants are palatalized when they precede /i/, as in /susi/ > [susʲi] (wolf) and /tuli/ > [tulʲi] (fire) (Campbell, 2004, p. 41).

#### 12. Diphthongization

This process refers to any change where a single vowel becomes a sequence of two vowel segments which together form the nucleus of one syllable. The Proto-Romance vowels /ɔ/ and /e/ were diphthongized in Spanish /ue/ and /ie/ as in /bɔno/ > /bueno/ (good) and /petra/ > /piedra/ (stone) (Campbell, 2004, p. 41).

#### 13. Monophthongization

In contrast to diphthongization, monophthongization is the process where a diphthong changes into a single vowel. An example of this is the change of the Proto-Indo-European /ai/ into the Sanskrit /e/ as in /kaiko/ > /kekara/ (squinting) (Campbell, 2004, p. 42).



#### 14. Vowel Raising

This process is the change of low vowels into mid/high vowels, or mid vowels into high vowels. The changes sometimes may happen extensively, which is known as vowel shifts. In Finnish, the vowel raisings are at the ends of words, as in /vere/ > /veri/ (blood) (Campbell, 2004, p. 42).

#### 15. Vowel Lowering

Unlike vowel raising, vowel lowering is the process which causes high vowels become mid/low vowels, or mid vowels become low vowels. In Proto-Dravidian /i/ and /u/ were lowered when they were followed by /a/ in the next syllable, as in /ilaj/ > /elaj/ (leaf), /pukaj/ > /pokaj/ (smoke) (Campbell, 2004, pp. 42-43).

#### 16. Nasalization

When vowels are in the environment of nasal consonants, they often get nasalized. Often the following nasal consonant disappears as a vowel gets nasalized, as in the French /bon/ > [bõn] > [bõ] (good) (Campbell, 2004, p. 43).

#### 17. Lenition (Weakening)

This is a process which is used to name several kinds of change where a sound is regarded as somehow having weaker articulation than the former sound. Lenition covers changes of two consonants to one, of stops or affricates to fricatives, of full consonants to glides /u/ or /w/, or sometimes of voiceless consonants to voiced, and even it may also include the complete loss of sounds. The change of voiceless stops between vowels in Latin into voiced in Spanish, as in /skopa/

> /eskoba/ (broom), /amika/ > /amiga/ (female friend), and /natara/ > /nadar/ (to swim), is an example of lenition (Campbell, 2004, p. 43).

#### 18. Strengthening

In contrast to lenition, this process results in a sound that is somehow stronger in its articulation compared to the original sound. For instance, in Q'eqchi' (Mayan), /j/ changed to /tj/ and /w/ changed to /kw/, where both /tj/ and /kw/ are perceived to be stronger than /j/ and /w/, as in /winq/ > /kwi:nq/ (person) and /ijax/ > /itjax/ (seed) (Campbell, 2004, p. 43).

#### 19. Gemination

Gemination is the duplicating of consonants that produces a sequence of two identical consonants from a single original consonant. An example of this is the germination of a short consonant between short vowels (VCV) in Finnish dialects, as in /osaa/ > /ossaa/ (he/she knows), where long vowels and long/geminated consonants are written double (Campbell, 2004, p. 43).

#### 20. Degemination

Unlike gemination, degemination is a process where a sequence of two identical consonants is changed to a single consonant. For example, the long (double) Latin consonants /pp/, /kk/, and /tt/ were degeminated in Spanish /p/, /k/, and /t/, as in /pekkatu/ > /pekado/ (sin, misfortune), and /mittere/ > /meter/ (to put) (Campbell, 2004, p. 44).

### 21. Affrication

Affrication is when a sound, usually a stop or fricative, changes to an affricate. For instance, **t** > **ts** /\_\_i, and **k** > **č** /\_\_i, **e** are commonly found in several languages (Campbell, 2004, p. 44).

### 22. Spirantization (Fricativization)

It is very common for an affricate or a stop to change to a fricative. For example, stops between vowels are common to be spirantized, such as /p/ in the Proto-Dravidian /tapu/ (to perish) which became /v/ in the Kannada /tavu/ (to decrease) (Campbell, 2004, p. 44).

### 23. Deaffrication

Similar to but more specific than spirantization, deaffrication is a process where an affricate becomes a fricative. In Chiltiupan Pipil (a Uto-Aztecan language), /ts/ > /s/, as in /**tsutsukul**/ > /**susukul**/ (water jug) (Campbell, 2004, p. 44).

### 24. Lengthening

This process denotes the change where a sound, commonly a vowel, is lengthened in some circumstances. For instance, in Q'eqchi' (Mayan), vowels are lengthened when they come before a consonant cluster beginning with a sonorant /r/, /m/, /l/ or /n/, as in /kenq/ > /ke:nq/ (bean) (Campbell, 2004, p. 44).

### 25. Shortening

In this process, sounds, especially vowels, get shortened in several circumstances, such as when unstressed, at the end

of words, before consonant clusters, etc. In trisyllabic words when followed by two or more syllables, vowels often got shortened as in the English *holiday* (compare to the modern *holy*) (Campbell, 2004, p. 45).

## **F. Word Formation as Morphological Adaptation**

Since the borrowing of words often embraces changes in their morphological forms, the understanding of word formation processes is vital in this research. Durkin (2009, pp. 95-122), Lieber (2009, pp. 35-53, 76-83), and Payne (2006, pp. 40-45) in their respective works categorize word formations primarily into the following types:

### **1. Affixation**

In addition to free morphemes, bound morphemes such as affixes can also be borrowed from one language to another. Affixes can be categorized into 4 types: prefixes, suffixes, infixes, and circumfixes (Durkin, 2009, pp. 95-101; Lieber, 2009, pp. 35-43; Payne, 2006, pp. 40-41).

#### **a. Prefixation**

Prefixation is a type of affixations that is done through the addition of a prefix (bound morpheme) to the beginning of a root (free morpheme). An example of prefixes is the English *un-* (not) which was from the Proto-Germanic *un-* (Payne, 2006, p. 40; Harper, 2001).

#### **b. Suffixation**

Suffixation is a type of affixations that involves the addition of a suffix (bound morpheme) to the end of a root (free morpheme). The noun-forming suffix *-ment* in

English is originally from French which represents the Latin *-mentum*. French inserts an *-e-* between the verbal root and the suffix, as in *commenc-e-ment* from *commencer*; with verbs in *ir*, *-i-* is inserted instead, as in *sent-i-ment* from *sentir*. When the suffix *-ment* is used together with English roots ending with *-y*, for instance *merry* as in *merriment*, there seems to be a habit of turning *-y* to *-i-* before this suffix (Durkin, 2009, p. 96; Harper, 2001).

c. Infixation

Infixation is an affixation done through placing an infix (bound morpheme) in the middle of a root (free morpheme). For instance, in Tagalog, the infix *-um-* is inserted after the initial consonant of an adjective to create an intransitive verb which means “become X”, as in *g-um-anda* (become beautiful) (Lieber, 2009, p. 77).

d. Circumfixation

Circumfixation is a rare affixation process done by adding a circumfix, which is a single bound morpheme (not two morphemes), having two parts –one that appears before the root and another after the root– to a root. In Dutch, the circumfix *ge-te* had a function of forming a collective noun from a count noun, as in *ge-berg-te* (mountain chain) which was created from *berg* (mountain) (Lieber, 2009, p. 78).

2. Compounding

Compounding is a process of word formation involving combining two, or more, roots to form new stems. The

compound *vice versa* in English was borrowed circa 1600 from Latin, from *vice*, ablative of *vicis* (a change, alternation, alternate order) + *versa*, feminine ablative singular of *versus*, past participle of *vertere* (to turn, turn about) (Harper, 2001).

### 3. Conversion

Conversion is also known as *zero-derivation*, *zero-affixation*, or *functional shift*. It is the process of creating new words simply by converting a word in one class into an identical word in another class without any change in the form or without adding any affix. An example of conversion is the English verb *to knife* which was converted from the noun *knife* (Durkin, 2009, p. 114).

### 4. Ellipsis

Ellipsis is the shortening of a phrase or a compound, so that the shortened form comes to have the former meaning of the whole phrase or compound. For instance, in Latin, the word *mīlle*, which means “mile” arouse from *mīlle passuum*, which literally means “thousand paces” (Durkin, 2009, p. 115).

### 5. Clipping

Clipping is the process by which the form of a word becomes shorter (clipped) without any change in its meaning or class. For example, in Australian English, *barbie* is a clipped form of the word *barbecue*. Clipping is also frequently found in Japanese, where loanwords from English and other Western languages are accommodated to the phonological system of this language which results in a large number of syllables,

for example the word *foomu* is clipped from *purattofoomu* (borrowed from the English word *platform*) (Durkin, 2009, p. 117).

6. Blending

Blending is a type of word formation combining two truncated word stems in order to form a new word. For instance, the English word *smog* is a blending of the words *smoke* and *fog* (Durkin, 2009, p. 118).

7. Back Formation

Back formation is a process of word shortening as a result of the reanalysis of an existing word which seems to have an affix in it. It is followed by a change in the word meaning and often in its class. The newly formed word is therefore the part that seems to be the morphological root of the previous word. The English verb *burgle* (19<sup>th</sup> century) is a back formation of *burglar* (16<sup>th</sup> century) which is an alteration of the Latin word *burgator* (Durkin, 2009, p. 121).

8. Reduplication

Reduplication is a morphological process done through repetition of part or whole of a root. An example of this process can be found in Samoan: *solo* (wipe, dry) > *solosolo* (handkerchief) (Lieber, 2009, p. 80).

9. Stem Modification

Stem modification is a change in the shape of a word with no addition of any affix. The verb change from *sing* to *sang* is one example of stem modification in English (Payne, 2006, p. 42).

#### 10. Subtractive Morphology

Subtractive morphology is a rarely found process, whereby one or more segments of a word are omitted in order to form a specific category, i.e. omitting all stem-final consonants of most nouns in a language, no matter what it is, to form plural. In Murle, *nyoon* which means “a lamb” is pluralized into *nyoo*, meaning “lambs” (Payne, 2006, p. 44).

#### 11. Acronyms and Initialisms

Both acronyms and initialisms are words created by combining the initial letters of phrases. The difference is that acronyms are read similarly to common words while initialisms are pronounced as a series of letters. The word *laser* is a result of acronym of the phrase *light amplification by the stimulated emission of radiation*. *DVD* on the other hand is a result of initialism of the phrase *digital video disk* (Durkin, 2009, pp. 122-123).





# CHAPTER IV



## CHAPTER IV

### THEORETICAL PRELIMINARIES

#### *Overview*

This chapter reviews various literature on the linguistics of English, Indonesian, and Thai as well as previous studies of English loanwords in Indonesian and Thai. The topics are listed below:

1. The Linguistics of English
2. The Linguistics of Indonesian
3. The Linguistics of Thai
4. Relevant Studies of English Loanwords in Indonesian
5. Relevant Studies of English Loanwords in Thai

#### **A. The Linguistics of English**

As said by Finegan (2009), English belongs to the West Germanic group. Being widely spoken, this language has so many different varieties. The phonological system of English therefore also differs based on its dialects. The descriptions given in this study are based on the standard varieties of English, namely standard British and American.

According to Yavas (2011, p. 139), the English possible syllable structure is (C)(C)(C)V(C)(C)(C)(C). The English sound system has considerably changed since the fourteenth century into three different periods: Old English, Middle English, and Modern English (Finegan, 2009, p. 67). English consonants are said to

be more stable from time to time and across dialects compared to its vowels. By referring to Modern English, consonants and vowels in this language can be summarized as follows:

*Table 4.1*  
*English Consonants*

	labial	labio-dental	dental	alveolar	post-alveolar	palatal	velar	glottal
plosive	p b			t d			k g	
nasal	m			n			ŋ	
affricate					tʃ dʒ			
fricative	(ʍ)	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ		(x)	h
approximant	w			l r		j		

*Source: McMahon (2002), p. 53*

McMahon's table above summarizes roughly 26 consonant phonemes of English. The labial-velar fricative /ʍ/ and velar fricative /x/ are presented in brackets since those consonants exist only in some varieties of English.

In addition to the consonants, English vowels can be listed in Table 4.2.

*Table 4.2*  
*English Vowels*

	front	central	back
high	i: ɪ		u: ʊ
mid	ε	ə ɜ:	ʌ ɔ:
low	æ		ɑ: (ɒ)

*Source: McMahon (2002), p. 75*

Those vowels are taken from two dialects of English, namely Standard Southern British English (SSBE) and General American (GA). The vowel /ɒ/ is bracketed because it is found in the

pronunciation of SSBE but not in that of GA. As stated by Ogden (2009, p. 67), some other varieties of English, such as Received Pronunciation (RP), Australian (Aus), and New Zealand (NZ), substitute the vowel /e/ for /ɛ/. In Tyneside (Tyn), vowels /æ/ and /ɑ:/ are replaced with /a/. In New Zealand (NZ), /o:/ is used instead of /ɔ:/ or /ɑ/. In the case of English diphthongs, they are formed through combining two vowels together into one single syllable nucleus. Some examples of diphthongs in English, particularly in the RP and American pronunciations, are: /eə/, /eɪ/, /ɪə/, /əʊ/ or /oʊ/, /ʊə/, /aɪ/, /aʊ/, and /ɔɪ/ (Ogden, 2009).

Duanmu (2004) states that English is basically a non-tonal language. Instead of tones, it has lexical stress as one of its phonemic features. For instance, the word *increase* can function as a noun or a verb depending on the positioning of the stress – as a noun it is stressed on the first syllable while as a verb it is stressed on the second syllable.

English is an inflectional language. Compared to most other Germanic languages, English has relatively few numbers of inflections. However, the English vocabulary has grown constantly in the course of time. Morphologically, like other Germanic languages, the English word stock develops mainly through three ways: compounding, prefixing, and suffixing (Finegan, 2009, p. 65).

## **B. The Linguistics of Indonesian**

As stated by (Tadmor, 2009, p. 791), Indonesian is a member of the Malayic subgroup of Western-Polynesian, a branch of the Austronesian language family. This language is spoken in

Indonesia. It is a standard dialect of Malay. This language is non-tonal and mostly polysyllabic.

The modern Indonesian syllable structure is (C)(C)(C)V(C) (C)(C) (Tadmor, 2009, p. 796). The consonants in this language are presented as follows.

*Table 4.3*  
*Indonesian Consonants*

	bilabial	dental/alveolar	palatal	velar	glottal
voiced stops	b	d		g	ʔ
voiceless stops	p	t		k	
nasals	m	n		ŋ	
liquids		l r			
fricatives		s			h
glides	w		y		

*Source: Tadmor (2009), p. 795*

In this study, the palatal glide /y/ in the table above will further be transcribed as /j/. In addition to those consonants, there are some other loan consonants introduced in Indonesian. They include /f/, /sj/, /z/ and /x/, which are usually found in loanwords.

Besides consonants, typical vowels in Indonesian can be summarized in the table below:

*Table 4.4*  
*Indonesian Vowels*

	front	central	back
high	i		u
mid	e	ə	o
low		a	

*Source: Tadmor (2009), p. 795*

However, similar to the case of consonants, some words borrowed from other languages have introduced other vowels.

Therefore, it is also possible to include additional vowels, particularly the open-mid /ɛ/ and /ɔ/ in the system (Gustiana, 2010). Besides single vowels, the combining of two vowels (diphthong) can also be a syllable nucleus in Indonesian. As posited by Sneddon (1996), Indonesian chiefly has three diphthongs, namely: /ai/, /au/, and /oi/.

Derivation is very common in Indonesian word formations as this language has a large number of derivational affixes. There are four kinds of affixes in Indonesian: prefixes, infixes, suffixes, and circumfixes (simulfixes). Besides affixing, other morphological processes, namely reduplicating and compounding are also used as means of forming words (Tadmor, 2009, pp. 797-799).

### **C. The Linguistics of Thai**

According to Gutman & Avanzati (2013), Thai belongs to the Tai-Kadai language family. This language is considered to be a tonal and mainly monosyllabic language. In this language, tones functionally distinguish word meanings. Each syllable needs to be spoken with the correct tone in order to be accurately understood. There are five lexical tones in Thai, namely: mid, low, falling, high, and rising. Here are some examples of Thai words whose meanings are different for they are pronounced with different tones: /mai/ (mile), /mài/ (new), /mâi/ (not), /mái/ (wood), and /mǎi/ (no?). Moreover, the vowel length also needs to be paid attention to. Similar to tones, in Thai, long or short vowels can affect the word meanings as well.

The possible syllable structures in this language are V, VV, VC, VVC, CV, CVV, CCV, CCVV, CVC, CVVC, CCVC and CCVVC, where V represents a short vowel and VV represents a long one (Hudak,



2009, p. 662). Thai has approximately 20 consonants. They can be summarized in the following table:

*Table 4.5*  
*Thai Consonants*

	bilabial	labio-dental	alveolar	palatal	velar	glottal
Stops						
Vls. unaspirated	p		t	c	k	
Vls. aspirated	ph		th	ch	kh	
Voiced	b		d			
Fricatives		f	s			h
Sonorants						
Nasals	m		n		ŋ	
Lateral			l			
Trill/Tap			r			
Semi-vowels	w			y		

*Source: Hudak (2009), p. 663*

The palatal /y/ in the table above will further be transcribed in this study as /j/. All Thai consonants can occur in the onset position but only /p, t, k, m, n, ŋ, w, j/ can appear in the coda position. There are some permitted initial consonant clusters, such as /pr, pl, phr, phl, tr, thr, kr, kl, kw, khr, khl, khw/. In fact, there is one more consonant existing in Thai: the glottal stop /ʔ/. That consonant is not included in Hudak's table because of its predictability. The glottal stop /ʔ/ occurs initially before a vowel lacking syllable-onset consonant or consonant cluster, finally after a short vowel nucleus with no final consonant, and internally in polysyllabic words (which sometimes can be unpronounced, especially at rapid conversational speed).

In Thai there are roughly 9 vowels. Each of them may appear phonemically short or long. Those vowels are listed as follows.

*Table 4.6*  
*Thai Vowels*

	front	back unrounded	back rounded
high	i	ɨ	u
mid	e	ə	o
low	ɛ	a	ɔ

*Source: Hudak (2009), p. 663*

Long vowels can be transcribed as “double” forms of the corresponding short vowels. Thus, the long vowels in Thai are /ii, ð, uu, ee, əə, oo, ɛɛ, aa, ɔɔ/ or respectively /i:, ð:, u:, e:, ə:, o:, ɛ:, a:, ɔ:/. As Roengpitya (2007) puts it, Thai has three phonemic diphthongs, viz. /ia/, /iə/, and /ua/.

Morphologically, Thai has no inflections for gender, tense, case, or number (Hudak, 2009, p. 667). The major derivational processes are represented by compounding, reduplicating, and affixing (prefixing and suffixing).

#### **D. Relevant Studies of English Loanwords in Indonesian**

Jones (1984) conducted an etymological study of loanwords in contemporary Indonesian. The focus of the study was loanwords in Indonesian which were commonly used and those which were in the forms of roots (word stems) as they were included in dictionaries. Derived forms, such as those with affixation, were excluded from the discussion, even though loan affixes were scrutinized in this study. According to Jones, as Indonesian language was developed from, and therefore it has become a variety of, Malay, loanwords that were previously accepted into old Malay automatically became parts of Indonesian lexicon.

The paper examined a number of donor languages influencing Indonesian in terms of loanwords. Among those

languages, English was said to be a major contributor of loanwords to Indonesian, as western cultural, economic, and technological influences poured into the country. The English loanwords in this study were classified based on the semantic fields. They belonged to these categories: sport, entertainment and art, social life, military, commerce, transport, technology, everyday articles, and miscellaneous. The sound change analysis written in this study was not really thorough as it mostly only talked about sound change of the loanwords from Dutch and few other languages. Loan translations, such as *kuda hitam* which was literally translated from the English *black horse*, were also mentioned in this paper. There were also some common nouns which were derived from brand names, as in *vaselin* (ointment) which was borrowed from the English *Vaseline* (a brand name introduced in 1872).

Jones & Indonesian Etymological Project (2007) conducted another study with the main objective of creating a dictionary of foreign loanwords in Indonesian and Malay.

Those loanwords were borrowed from various languages, namely: Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian, Hindi, Tamil, Chinese, Japanese, and European, including English. It was a compilation of several projects on loanwords done by different authors. They tried to identify the foreign words which had become the sources of loanwords. Therefore, donor languages were defined as those from which loanwords were borrowed directly into Indonesian. For example, a number of words originated from French came into Indonesian through Dutch, as in the past Indonesia was colonized by Dutch, thus Dutch in this case was seen as the

donor language instead of French. Loan translations (calques) were excluded from the scope of this study.

The framework of the research was said to be that of the Indonesian Etymological project, but as Malay is the precursor from which Indonesian was developed, there were many Indonesian loanwords arrived when traditional Malay was in use. Therefore, in this sense, Malay and Indonesian were said to be largely interchangeable. A cross reference was given in the cases where more than one entry was found, for instance for *television*, there were two entries, *tivi* and *teve*, the former was from English and the latter was from Dutch. It was also found that some words partially composed of one or more elements from the source languages, as in *komputerisasi* which was based on the English *computerization*. Loanwords in the forms of compounds which may not exist but comprise some elements from donor languages were also found in Indonesian and/or Malay, as in *konseptor* (originator of a concept) which was based on the English *concept* + English *-er*. Shortening forms of loanwords was also listed on the list, as in *kok* which was based on the English *shuttlecock*. In the final part, a list of foreign loanwords in Indonesian and Malay was given in the form of a dictionary. Widayaningsih (2010) conducted research aimed at describing the phonological adaptation of English loanwords in Indonesian, particularly in sports terms. The sources of the data in this study were Indonesian newspapers, namely *Bola*, *Top Skor*, *GoSport*, *Media Indonesia*, *Seputar Indonesia*, *Republika*, and *Kompas*. There were one hundred items collected from those newspapers as the research data. This study grouped English

loanwords in Indonesian into two categories: those that changed phonologically (42%) and those that did not (58%). According to the data, it can be seen that the majority of English loanwords were those which did not undergo any phonological change. Widayaningsih argued that those words had the same phonemic characteristics as those in Indonesian, therefore they did not require any phonological change to be able to be pronounced by Indonesians. Some examples of words in this category are: the English *striker* /straɪkə(r)/ > the Indonesian *striker* /straikər/ and the English *tennis* /tenɪs/ > the Indonesian *tenis* /tenis/.

The loanwords that underwent phonological changes were further divided into four categories, namely addition, reduction, dissimilation, and complex phonological changes. Addition was exemplified by the insertion of pure vowel into consonant clusters as in the English *dribble* /dribl/ > the Indonesian *dribble* /dribəl/ and in the English *league* /li:g/ > the Indonesian *liga* /liga/. Reduction was illustrated through the deletion of phonemes, in this case vowels, like in the English *goal* /goul/ > the Indonesian *gol* /gol/ and in the English *pole* /poul/ > the Indonesian *pul* /pul/. Dissimilation occurred in some English loanwords because some phonemes in the original words did not exist in Indonesian, thus those phonemes were changed by those existing in Indonesian, as in the English *athlete* /æθli:t/ > the Indonesian *atlet* /**at**let/ and in the English *defensive* /difensɪv/ > the Indonesian *defensif* /**de**fensɪf/. Complex phonological changes were defined as the adaptation which incorporated more than one kind of phonological change. For instance, the English *golf* /gɑ:lf/ > the Indonesian *golf* /gol**ə**lf/.

which incorporated the change of the vowel /ɑ:/ into /o/ and the addition of the pure vowel /ə/ into the consonant cluster /lf/. In her conclusion, Widayaningsih stated that phonological changes in those loanwords were caused by the differences between the phonological system of Indonesian and that of English. Other factors such as social and cultural changes were also said to be influential in the existence of loanwords.

Rachmiati (2011) examined the phonemic and graphemic adaptation of English loanwords in *Teropong* articles of *Kompas* newspaper in the edition of August 16, 2011. The articles mainly discussed the topics related to science and technology. The method employed in this research was qualitative. There were 50 loanwords collected from the articles. The findings of this research were divided into two parts: phonemic and graphemic.

At the phonemic level, the discussion covered phonological changes of consonants and vowels. Consonant adaptation of English loanwords in Indonesian in this study included consonant replacement, consonant addition, and consonant omission. Consonant replacement was exemplified by: the change of the sibilant /z/ into the voiceless alveolar /s/ as in /lenz/ > /lensa/, because in Indonesian, the sibilant /z/ only can occur in the first syllable's initial position; and the change of the voiced affricative /dʒ/ into the voiced stop /g/ in the syllable-initial position as in /tek'nɒlədʒi/ > /teknologi/. Consonant addition in this study was shown by the addition of voiced consonants as in /'dʒenrəl/ > /ʝendəral/. Consonant omission occurred in English loanwords in Indonesian, as shown by the deletion of the palatal approximant /j/ in /dʒu, pʒu, mʒu, sʒu, tʒu/ > /du, pu,

mu, su, tu/, i.e. /kəm'pju:tə(r)/ > /komputər/. Vowel adaptation consisted of vowel replacement and vowel addition. According to Rachmiati, vowel replacement was common as there were some phonemes in English that did not have any correspondence in Indonesian. For examples, the vowel /æ/ and diphthong /ei/ were usually replaced by the Indonesian /a/, while the vowel /ɔ:/ and diphthong /əʊ/ were replaced by the vowel /o/. Vowel addition was said to occur when a sound cluster did not exist in Indonesian, as in /mæksɪml/ > /maksimal/.

At the graphemic level, the analysis was mainly about the changes caused by the different spelling systems between English and Indonesian. It included two kinds of adaptation: pure phonological adaptation and syllabic adaptation. Pure phonological adaptation happened when English phonemes had identical correspondence in Indonesian. The process of adaptation occurred based on the pronunciation while the writing followed the spelling rules in Indonesian. Some examples of this were the changes of graphemes between the English original words and the loanwords in Indonesian. The English grapheme *c* was adapted into either *k* as in *canal* > *kanal* or *s* as in *potency* > *potensi*. The grapheme *ch* was changed into either *c* as in *China* > *Cina* or *k* as in *technology* > *teknologi*. The grapheme *ea* was changed into the Indonesian *i*, for instance, *team* > *tim*. Sometimes the grapheme *e* was omitted as in *institute* > *institut*. The grapheme *g* was adapted into the Indonesian *j* as in *manager* > *manajer*. The English *q* was adapted into the Indonesian *k*, especially when it was before *u* as in *frequency* > *frekuensi*. The grapheme *t* was changed into *s* when it was pronounced as /s/ as

in *station* > *stasiun*. The grapheme *x* in the mid- or end-syllable positions was changed into *ks*, like in *maximal* > *maksimal*. The English grapheme *y* when it was pronounced as /i/ was adapted into the grapheme *i* in Indonesian, as in *strategy* > *strategi*. Syllabic adaptation included three types of adaptation: double consonants became single consonant; monosyllabic word became disyllabic; and consonant inhibitory at the end of after-vocal consonant clusters disappeared.

Rachmiati stated that all English words with double consonants were written as those with single consonant in Indonesian. For examples, *ll*, *ff*, *mm*, and *pp* > *l*, *f*, *m*, and *p* as in *cellular* > *seluler*, *effect* > *efek*, *commercial* > *komersial*, and *application* > *aplikasi*. There was a case where a monosyllabic word became disyllabic when borrowed into Indonesian, as in *lens* > *lensa* through the process of sound addition at the end of the word. In addition, there was also deletion of consonant cluster after vocal, for examples, *st* > *s* and *nt* > *n* as in *specialist* > *spesialis* and *permanent* > *permanen*. At the end, Rachmiati concluded that borrowing was not a coincidental and unsystematic process but typically deliberate, purposeful, and systematic.

Susillowati (2012) identified and analyzed the English loanwords in *Ekonomi, Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan* column of *Kompas* daily newspaper from 8 until 24 May and 4 June 2012 editions. The method employed in this study was descriptive qualitative method. The data analysis was done based on Sudjono's formula, used to count the rate of loanwords, which stated that  $P = x \times 100\%$ .



P = percentage

F = frequency of word

N = total of word

There were 184 English loanwords found in 13 articles. The analysis showed that those words were 22 simple loanwords (0.598151%), 125 complex loanwords (3.398586%), and 37 translated loanwords (1.005982%). Simple loanwords were either those whose pronunciation was adapted into Indonesian, but spelling was not, as in the Indonesian *target* /target/ which was borrowed from the English *target* /'ta:ɡɪt/, or those whose spelling was adapted into Indonesian but pronunciation was not. Complex loanwords were those adapted into Indonesian both their spelling and pronunciation, as in *produksi* /produksi/ which was from *produce* /prə'dju:s/. Translated loanwords were those borrowed through literally translating the original words in the donor language, as in *ekonomi domestik* which was a translated loanword of *domestic economic*. The findings indicated that complex loanwords were the most frequent whereas simple loanwords were the least frequent in those articles.

Da Silva (2013) examined the English borrowings and Indonesian-English code-switching in the short stories of Raditya Dika's blog. The data were collected from two books written by Raditya Dika, entitled *Babi Ngesot*, *Datang tak Diundang*, *Pulang tak Berkutang* and *Manusia Setengah Salmon*. Borrowing was said as the integration of words or phrases which were previously foreign to a language into the vocabulary of that language. It was further classified into four types: loanwords, loan blends, loan shift and coinage.

Loanwords in Da Silva's study were defined as the original form of words in one language which were used in another language. Loan blends were defined as the use of a linguistic item in a language together with another linguistic item in the borrowing language. Term *loan shift* in this study was used to refer to semantic loans, which has been explained in the former discussion. Coinage, in contrast to loan blends, in this study was the invention of new terms by combining two foreign words of two different foreign languages. Code-switching on the other hand was defined as an act of switching words, phrase, or clause from one language to another. It covered three types, namely tag-switching, intra-sentential switching, and inter-sentential switching. Tag-switching was described as the insertion of a tag phrase or a word from one language to another. Intra-sentential switching was described as that which occurred within a sentence or a clause. Inter-sentential switching was that which occurred in clause level or from one sentence in a language to another sentence in another language.

The findings indicate that there were 633 sentences in those two novels which contained either borrowings or code-switching. The total number of English borrowings was 712 (84%), while that of code-switching was 135 (16%). The English borrowings consisted of 647 loanwords (93%), 38 loan blends (5%), 11 phonological adaptation (2%), and 1 loan shift (<1%). The Indonesian-English code-switching comprised 89 intra-sentential code-switching (66%), 27 inter-sentential code-switching (20%), and 19 tag-switching (14%). Da Silva stated that the writer of those two novels used loanwords for both

terms available and not available in the Indonesian vocabulary. The loan blends were shown by some expressions such as *supercep* which consisted of the English *super* and the Malay-Betawinese colloquial adjective *cep*, and *ngedate* comprising the Malay-Betawinese colloquial prefix *nge-* and the English verb *date*. Da Silva also categorized some lexical items such as *eniwei* (from the English *anyway*), *meibi* (from the English *maybe*) and *oke* (from the English *okay*). The data further implied that nouns were the ones mostly borrowed, with adjectives on the second place, followed by verbs, and adverbs.

Besides the studies listed above, some other researchers have also dealt with the topics pertinent to loanwords in Indonesian. Those topics are: the influence of some western languages on modern Indonesian (Murphy, 1968); borrowing in Indonesian (Eddy, 1989); loanwords in Indonesian (Jumariah, 1996); loanwords in Indonesian (Sayogie, 2009); borrowing in the translation of D. H. Lawrence's 'Lady Chatterley's Lover' into Indonesian (Srikandi, 2010); and English borrowing words in Indonesian political terminology (Lorania, 2012).

#### **E. Relevant Studies of English Loanwords in Thai**

Loanwords, also referred to in general as lexical borrowing, normally come up in a language through culture contacts. Gandour (1976) studied the tonal rules for English loanwords in Thai by trying to generate the rules governing the conversion of English intonation and stress patterns into Thai tones and scrutinize the degree to which the resulting tonal patterns can be rationalized with regard to the pitch contours linked to the English stress patterns. The findings showed that even though

the tone assignments in English loanwords were not exactly the same as those of native Thai words, they were also determined by syllable structure.

As there exist five contrastive tones in Thai, namely: mid, high, low, falling, and rising, one of the tones is assigned to each syllable of an English loanword. The eventual tonal representation of English stress patterns seems to be determined by the interaction of both phonetic and non-phonetic factors. In the monosyllabic words, mid tone was found to be assigned to smooth syllables (syllables ending in a long vowel or sonorant segment), while high tone was found on checked syllables (syllables ending in a non-sonorant segment). In polysyllabic words, the tonal assignments were further determined by the syllables' position in the words, whether they are in the final or non-final positions. In final positions, falling tone was found on smooth syllables while low tone occurred on checked syllables. In non-final positions, mid tone was assigned to smooth syllables whereas high tone was found on checked syllables. All the rules for tonal placement in English loanwords in Thai above can be summarized as follows.

*Table 4.7*  
*Gandour's Summary of Tonal Placement in English Loanwords in Thai*

	monosyllabic words	polysyllabic words	
		non-final position	final position
smooth syllable	mid	mid	falling
checked syllable	high	high	low

*Source: Gandour (1979), p. 142*

Gandour stated that the rules above applied to the vast majority of English words borrowed into Thai, even though he also realized that there were a number of English loanwords showing different tonal assignments from those rules. Some of those exceptional tonal assignments, he claimed, can be explained through “phonetic, morphological, and/or semantic information” but some others were left unexplained.

Bickner (1986) analyzed tone assignment of English loanwords in Thai by scrutinizing a number of loanwords which had been widely accepted in the Central Thai dialect. He suggested that words were borrowed into Thai through two ways, namely writing and speech, which further influenced the pronunciation of those words. According to Bickner, in addition to pitch height and tone contour, several previously overlooked aspects such as the state of the glottis and breath intensity are also important to be taken into account in order to understand the pattern of tone placement. By focusing on those overlooked

aspects, he believed that it would help to explain the seemingly anomalous pattern as well as to describe the general pattern of tone placement. The data were further analyzed into four main categories.

In the first category, most of the loanwords have mid tone, for examples: /keem/ (game), /pɔɔn/ (pound), and /fɔɔm/ (form). Bickner assumed that most of those words entered Thai when few Thais knew English and few westerners knew Thai, therefore the words were borrowed through spoken forms and the models were pronounced in isolation by English speakers. The speakers of English pronounce the words with resonance beginning either with the vowel or with the initial consonant, and continuing to the end of the vowel, diphthong, or continuant in syllable-final position which results in rather flat pitch height and volume, lessening only toward the end of the syllable. This sustained pitch height was perceived by Thais as having a closer shape to the mid tone than to the other four tones.

The second category contains one-syllable words, most of which have a voiceless final consonant in the English model and are pronounced in Thai with either high or low tone, as in /kók/ (cock), /líp, líf/ (lift), and /lòɔt/ (lord). Even though they seem to be irregular, Bickner offered an explanation that the crucial factors determining the tone assignments in this category were the impression of contour and the presence or absence of glottal constriction which were considered significant in the Thai tone system.

The loanwords in the third category are polysyllabic words which in English are not stressed on the final syllable. This

category covers three types of borrowed forms. The first one is polysyllabic loanwords which are pronounced in Thai with the falling tone on the final syllable, as in /kookôo/ (cocoa). The second type is polysyllabic loanwords which are assigned mid tone on the final syllable. The assignment of mid tone to the words in the second type was, as believed by Bickner, a result of the nature of the syllable concerned and the way through which the borrowing happened. For example, the word /prookɾ(ɛ)m/ (program) is word which most probably borrowed into Thai through imitation of the speech of American English. In a spoken model, the low front vowel /ɛɛ/ followed by /m/ causes a rather flat pitch throughout the syllable, followed by a drop in intensity at the end, and therefore mid tone would be the best imitation.

The last type includes polysyllabic English words with unstressed final syllable which have either a sibilant or a stop consonant in final position. Bickner stated that the variety of tone assignment in this last type showed that Thai, which is a typically monosyllabic language, cannot easily fit into the native system of those polysyllabic words ending with an unstressed checked syllable. The fourth-and-last category covers very few loanwords from polysyllabic English words which are stressed on the final syllable. As this category has a small set of examples, Bickner considered it tentative. It has two types of loanwords. The first one is those whose final unchecked syllable is assigned either mid tone or rising tone. The possible explanation for the mid tone is either that the words were borrowed through transliteration and that the tone corresponds to Thai writing system's rules, or that the English stress pattern creates a

level contour which was best imitated by assigning mid tone. The second one is those ending in a checked syllable which is stressed. This type covers two loanwords which were assigned mid tone on their final syllables, namely /pəˈsen/ (percent) and /siˈmen/ (cement), and one loanword assigned low tone on its final syllable, that is /tɛˈknɪk/ (technique).

Nacaskul (1986) also conducted a study on English loanwords in Thai which consists of three parts. The first part was mainly about the types of English loanwords borrowed into Thai language. According to the data of 1000 loanwords collected from articles afore 1910 A.D., there were at least 11 categories, namely: science and technology (13.51%), food and drinks (9%), clothes and fashion (8.89%), games and gambling (6.87%), persons and positions (6.4%), measurement (6.04%), education (4.86%), art and recreation (3.32%), medical sciences (3.08%), music and dancing (2.96%), miscellaneous (35.07%).

The next part of the study discussed the general characteristics of English loanwords in Thai and the history of how English loanwords were absorbed into this language. Nacaskul claimed that personal names were amid the first English loanwords coming up, which were borrowed through adaptation in sound articulation. Since World War II, a large number of English loanwords were found and there were differences between loanwords' pronunciation of educated and those of uneducated people.

The last part of Nacaskul's paper talked about the realization of English loanwords in Thai, which included syllabification, initial phonemes, vowel phonemes, final consonant phonemes,



and tones. Usually, the syllabification of loanwords was in accordance with the syllable numbers of the original words. However there happened sometimes reduction of weak syllables or shortening of long words, such as in *meter* > /mé:t/ and *air-conditioning* > /ʔɛ:/. Often English unstressed syllables were adapted into fully stressed ones, particularly when they were in the final positions, as in *tennis* > /thennít/, *tutor* > /tiwtâ:/, and *over-coat* > /ʔo:wê:khó:t/. An English word composing of a non-permissible consonant cluster in Thai phonological system would be adapted in a way that the loanword may have different number of syllables from the original word, like in *spring* > /sapriŋ/. Most of English initial consonants were said to be well-matched with those of Thai. However, some initial consonants were replaced by Thai phonemes. Those consonants were /v/, /z/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, and /dz/ which were respectively replaced by /w/, /s/, /ch/, and /c or j/. There were some new initial consonant clusters introduced into Thai through the use of English loanwords by educated Thai speakers, namely /br, bl, dr, fl, fr/ and the plosives preceded by /s/. Some English clusters were adapted by being separated by an unstressed /a/, as in *brandy* > /baràndi:/ and *skirt* > /saké:t/. According to Nacaskul, in the adaptation of English loanwords, simple vowels were replaced by Thai vowels with the closest quality to them. Diphthongs and triphthongs which did not end with the close vowels /i, u/ were normally reduced to simple vowels, while those ending with /i, u/ were phonologically perceived in Thai as simple vowels with the finals /j, w/ respectively. On the contrary, diphthongs /ei, eə, ou, ɔə/ were substituted by long vowels /e:, ɛ:, o:, ɔ:/.

English diphthongs /ai, au/ which preceded a final consonant were adapted into either /a/ or /a:/ followed by /j, w/ as the syllables' close, with the final consonants omitted. The final phonemes in Thai were said to be limited to /p, t, k, ʔ, m, n, ŋ, j, w/. The English finals /p, t, k, m, n, ŋ/ were adapted into Thai /p, t, k, m, n, ŋ/, and the English finals /b, d, g/ were also naturalized as final voiceless /p, t, k/. The English finals /l, w/ following long vowels and /r/ following diphthongs were usually omitted in Thai. The final /dz/ can be either pronounced as /t/ or omitted. The final /l/ may also be replaced by the Thai /n/, and the final /d, ʃ, tʃ, dz, θ/ may be substituted by the Thai /t/. English final consonant clusters were reduced to a single final consonant as in /-kt, -ns, -st, -pt, -lk, -lm, -ft, -lv, -tʃ, -kst/ which respectively became /-k, -n, -t, -p, -n, -m, -p, -w, -t, -k/. The data also showed that in some cases, there were new final consonants introduced into Thai, such as /s, f, ch/.

Moreover, there were also innovations of older loanwords through the emergence of new loanwords which better resembled the original English words. As Thai is a tonal language, English loanwords were pronounced by Thai speakers using particular tones in the Thai tonal system. When the words were borrowed into Thai through writing, Nacaskul claimed that their pronunciation would follow Thai orthographic rules, which resulted in middle, high, and low tones. When the words were borrowed through speaking, they were often assigned falling and high tones. The falling tone was said to be assigned to the last syllable of disyllabic and polysyllabic words, particularly if it was an open syllable or ended with a semi-vowel or a nasal.

The high tone was assigned to closed syllables which ended by a stop. Nacaskul also posited that there was a lack of conformity between the pronunciation of English loanwords and their written forms. The high tone was said as the most frequently assigned tone to English loanwords, while the rising tone was the least assigned one.

Kenstowich & Suchato (2006) in their paper discussed the adaptation of English loanwords into Thai. Those words were collected from a corpus. There were four main focuses of the study: the context-free adaptation of English consonants which lack direct counterparts in Thai phonemic system; the accommodation of English voiced/voiceless sounds in numerous contexts; the repair strategies employed to accommodate the loanwords to Thai CVC syllables; and the tonal assignments to English loanwords.

The first finding of their paper suggested that auditory resemblance played a more significant rules, rather than adjacency in articulators' positions or shared natural classes, in the adaptation of some sounds like /v/ > /w/ and /ʃ/ > /ch/. On the contrary, articulatory positions seemed to play more significant role than auditory similarities in the adaptation of interdental to dentals. Kenstowich speculated that it might be influenced by visual information which possibly became a more prominent input than auditory information. The second finding discussed the adaptation of English voiced/voiceless stops to Thai aspirated/unaspirated, voiced/voiceless series. The English voiceless stops in the word-initial position which were adapted to aspirate category indicated that there was an

effort from Thais to match with the English surface phonetics. However, there seemed to be some accommodation suppressing the surface phonetics which was indicated by some overlooked details such as the change of the English partially voiced initial stops [b̥] and [d̥] into Thai fully voiced initial stops. Kenstowich believed that the cases where differences in phonetic aspects were more stable and noticeable in the source language came to be the standard for normalization.

The next section of the paper analyzed the adaptation English loanwords into the native grammar in the view of the Optimality Theory Output-Output correspondence constraints. It scrutinized the adaptation to the Thai prosodic structure where citation form's final syllable was required to be a heavy syllable as it bore a major stress. Truncation came to be the suitable repair strategy rather than epenthesis according to constraint agreement and avoidance of weak vowels' eminence. Moreover, vowel lengthening, as opposed to glottalization, was found to be a novel repair strategy in the native grammar.

The last finding was mainly about tonal assignments to English loanwords in Thai. Based on the data of the research, there was no direct correspondence between English F0 contours and Thai tonal systems. Mostly there were two default rules for assigning tones to English loanwords: syllables ending with an obstruent take the high tone, while syllables ending with a sonorant take the mid tone. The latter rule was said to be sensitive to a covert obstruent which was not recognized in the loanwords.

Rungruang (2008) examined the phonological adaptation of English loanwords in Thai by concentrating on the modification

of consonants from the Optimality Theory's point of view. This study mainly focused on how English loanwords were adapted into the Thai phonological system through OT grammars, and the mechanisms of adaptation which incorporated two conflicting constraints: markedness and faithfulness. The data were gathered from standard dictionaries and most analysis was done in a context-free milieu. This study paid close attention to consonant behaviors in different environments, namely onset cluster simplification, coda cluster simplification, medial consonants, laryngeal features, and liquid alternations, therefore vowels and tones were excluded from the analysis.

The findings of the study showed that not all English sounds, especially consonants, existed in Thai and thus Thais substituted those unlicensed consonants with either auditory resembling segments or shared natural class segments. For example, the sound /v/ in English was replaced by [w] because of their auditory similarity, and the English /g/ was replaced by [k] due to their shared place of articulation. Vowel insertion was also found in the English onset cluster /sk/, as in /skæn/ (scan) > [sàkɛɛn]. On the other hand, Thai retained consonant clusters which fit the Thai phonotactics, such as /gruup/ (group) > [krúp]. In coda positions, English consonant clusters must be simplified. Moreover, Rungruang also found that not all adaptation followed the Thai phonology. For instance, the onset clusters [br], [dr], [fr], [bl], [fl] previously did not exist but were then introduced into the Thai phonotactic system. The English postvocalic lateral /l/ was replaced by the nasal [n], glide [w], or even deleted, while the postvocalic [r] was replaced by [w]. The study also

revealed that English ambisyllabic consonants were geminated in Thai, as in /tenis/ (tennis) > [t<sup>h</sup>ennít]. To sum up, in the case of impermissible segments in English loanwords, Thai has several methods of adaptation: segmental substitution, deletion, insertion, and fusion. The choice of adaptation strategies was influenced by constraints. Rungruang gave a brief example by stating that when segmental deletion happened, MAX-IO (segments in the input must have corresponding segments in the output) was in the lowest rank. On the other hand, when segmental replacement occurred, IDENT-IO (segments must have the same features in both input and output) was the lowest ranked constraint. Besides, some methods of adaptation tended to occur in specific environments. Segmental replacement was found in both onset and coda positions. Segmental deletion was only employed in simple coda with liquids. Vowel insertion took place only in onset clusters, namely [tw] and [sk]. The study also showed that constraint ranking can change over time, and it was affected by the accessibility of English which may cause constraint re-ranking. Multiple optimal outputs were found in the case when spoken forms were included under consideration, such as /k<sup>h</sup>riim/ (cream) which had three spoken form variations: [k<sup>h</sup>riim], [k<sup>h</sup>liim], and [k<sup>h</sup>iim].

Lohakart (2009) scrutinized the categories of English loanwords taken from three Thai historical novels: *Si Phaendin* (The Four Reigns), *Khang Lang Phap* (Behind the Painting) and *Man Manut*. The steps of the research methodology were collecting loanwords, writing down and classifying, sampling and analyzing. From 146 units of loanwords found in the

study, there were four types of English loanwords: loanwords/transliteration (66.43%), loan blend (26.02%), loan shift (6.16%), and loan translation (1.36%). Most of the loanwords (transliteration) found were proper nouns and names. Those words were borrowed into Thai with very little or no change. Loan blend was a combination between loanwords and Thai words. Lohakart stated that Thais used loan blend to emphasize the meanings of English loanwords and make those words more understandable. Loan shift, according to Lohakart, was those words which changed or were extended from the English words. Loan translation was the words created through literal translation of English words. He proposed four main reasons of English borrowing in Thai, namely: needs, convenience, simplicity, and prestige.

In addition to those previous works, some other studies also give insightful contributions to theories of loanwords in Thai. The topics that they covered are: English loanwords in the reign of King Rama III (Udomwong, 1978); English loanwords in Thai newspapers (Raksaphet, 1991); the effect of English loanwords on the pronunciation of Thai (Panlay, 1997); English loanwords in Thai newspapers (Sujaduk, 2005); and English loanwords in Thai movies (Wongsukum, 2005).

# CHAPTER V





## CHAPTER V

### ENGLISH LOANWORDS IN INDONESIAN & THAI: PHONOLOGICAL ADAPTATION

#### A. Phonological Adaptation

The English, Indonesian and Thai phonological systems are distinct from each other. They contribute significantly to several similarities and differences in the phonological adaptation between English loanwords in Indonesian and those in Thai. The varieties of donor language from which the words come, in this case British, American, or other varieties of English, also result in the different forms of English loanwords in Indonesian and Thai. Here are some examples taken from the data of this research:

Table 5.1  
*British vs. American Borrowing*

English	Indonesian	Thai
<i>concrete</i> /'kɒŋ.kri:t/ (BRIT) /'kɑn.krit/ (AME)	/kɔŋ.krit/ (BRIT)	/khɔ:n.kri:t/ or /khɔ:n.ki:t/ (AME)
<i>gear</i> /'gɪə/ (BRIT) /'gɪr/ (AME)	/gɪr/ (AME)	/kia/ (BRIT)
<i>nuclear</i> /'nju:.kliər/ (BRIT) /'nu:.kli:.ə/ (AME)	/nu.klir/ (AME)	/niw.khlia/ (BRIT)

The pronunciation difference found in the first example is the codas /ŋ/ of the British /'kɒŋ.kri:t/ and /n/ of the American /'kan.krit/. In Thai, the loanword retains the American sound, while in Indonesian, it preserves the British one. In the second and third examples, Thai seems to borrow words from the British English, whereas Indonesian tends to imitate the American ones. The word *gear* is pronounced with the diphthong /ɪə/ in the British /gɪə/, which was adapted into /ia/ in the Thai /kia/. In the American English, it is pronounced with the monophthong /ɪ/ as in /gɪr/, which was later adapted into /i/ as in the Indonesian /gir/. The word *nuclear* is pronounced as /'nju:.kliə/ by the British and /'nu:.kli:ə/ by the Americans. The British /nju/ in /'nju:.kliə/ was borrowed into the Thai /niw/ in /niw.khlia/, where the semivowel consonant /j/ was adapted into the vowel /i/ and the vowel /u/ was adapted into the semivowel consonant /w/. On the other hand, the American /nu/ in /'nu:.kli:ə/ retains its form in the Indonesian /nu.klir/.

Phonological adaptation can be grouped into two main categories, namely consonant adaptation and vowel adaptation. They are further elaborated in the next two sections.

## **B. Consonant Adaptation**

Based on the data collected in this research, the consonants can take place in the following five types of environments: single onsets, single codas, onset clusters, coda clusters, and intervocalic consonants.

### **1. Single Onset Adaptation**

Single onsets of English loanwords in both Thai and Indonesian can be classified into two types: native and

foreign. Single native onsets are those that can be found in the phonological systems of the borrowing languages, while single foreign onsets are those that exist only in English, the donor language.

Single onsets that have equivalent sounds in the borrowing languages tend to retain their forms. In this case, those single onsets do not change phonologically when borrowed into Thai or Indonesian, because they are perceived to be native sounds in those languages (they are allowed in the phonological systems of the borrowing languages). The single English onsets that do not change phonologically in both Thai and Indonesian are: /b/, /d/, /f/, /s/, /m/, /n/, /h/, /l/, and /w/. The examples are provided in Table 5.2:

Table 5.2

*Single English Onsets with Equivalent Sounds in both Thai and Indonesian*

English	Thai	Indonesian
<b>/b/</b> /bɑːr/ <i>bar</i> /'bæd.mɪn.tən/ <i>badminton</i> /'beɪs.bɔːl/ <i>baseball</i>	<b>/b/</b> /baː/ /bɛːt.mɪn.tān/ /bɛːt.bɔn/ or /bɛːs.bɔn/	<b>/b/</b> /bar/ /bat.mɪn.tɔn/ /bis.bɔl/
<b>/d/</b> /dɪ.'zaɪn/ <i>design</i> /'dʊʊ.nʌt/ <i>donut</i> /'moʊ.dəm/ <i>modem</i>	<b>/d/</b> /diː.saːj/ /doː.nát/ /moː.dɛm/	<b>/d/</b> /di.sain/ /do.nat/ /mo.dəm/
<b>/f/</b> /faɪl/ <i>file</i> /fɪlm/ <i>film</i> /'fɜː.nɪ.tʃə/ <i>furniture</i>	<b>/f/</b> /faːj/ /fiːm/ /fəː.nicâː/	<b>/f/</b> /fail/ /fi.ləm/ /fur.ni.tur/

English	Thai	Indonesian
<b>/s/</b> /su:p/ <i>soup</i> /'sou.də/ <i>soda</i> /'ɒk.sɪ.dʒən/ <i>oxygen</i>	<b>/s/</b> /súp/ <i>soup</i> /so:.da:/ <i>soda</i> /ʔo:k.sicên/ <i>oxygen</i>	<b>/s/</b> /sup/ <i>soup</i> /so.da/ <i>soda</i> /ʔok.si.gen/ <i>oxygen</i>
<b>/m/</b> /'mi:.tɪŋ/ <i>meeting</i> /'maʊs/ <i>mouse</i> /sɪ.'ment/ <i>cement</i>	<b>/m/</b> /mít.tîŋ/ <i>meeting</i> /'máw/ <i>mouse</i> /si:.men/ <i>cement</i>	<b>/m/</b> /mi.tiŋ/ <i>meeting</i> /'mɔs/ <i>mouse</i> /sə.men/ <i>cement</i>
<b>/n/</b> /'nɪk.l/ <i>nickel</i> /'nout.bʊk/ <i>notebook</i> /'boʊ.nəs/ <i>bonus</i>	<b>/n/</b> /ník.kên/ <i>nickel</i> /'nó:t.búk/ <i>notebook</i> /bo:.nát/ <i>bonus</i>	<b>/n/</b> /ni.kəl/ <i>nickel</i> /'not.buk/ <i>notebook</i> /bo.nus/ <i>bonus</i>
<b>/h/</b> /'hou.'tel/ <i>hotel</i> /'haɪ.drə.dʒən/ <i>hydrogen</i> /'æɪ.kə.hɒl/ <i>alcohol</i>	<b>/h/</b> /ho:.ten/ <i>hotel</i> /'haj.dro:.cên/ <i>hydrogen</i> /ʔɛw.kɔ:.hɔ:/ <i>alcohol</i>	<b>/h/</b> /'ho.tel/ <i>hotel</i> /'hi.dro.gen/ <i>hydrogen</i> /ʔalkɔhɒl/ <i>alcohol</i>
<b>/l/</b> /'lɪp.stɪk/ <i>lipstick</i> /'lɒk.ə/ <i>locker</i> /'vaɪə.'lɪn/ <i>violin</i>	<b>/l/</b> /líp.stɪk/ or /líp.satɪk/ <i>lipstick</i> /'lɔk.kê:/ <i>locker</i> /'waj.ʔo:.lin/ <i>violin</i>	<b>/l/</b> /lip.stik/ <i>lipstick</i> /'lɔ.kər/ <i>locker</i> /'fio.lin/ <i>violin</i>
<b>/w/</b> /'wɪg/ <i>wig</i> /'web/ <i>web</i> /'wɪs.ki/ <i>whiskey</i>	<b>/w/</b> /'wík/ <i>wig</i> /'wép/ <i>web</i> /'wít.sakí:/ <i>whiskey</i>	<b>/w/</b> /'wik/ <i>wig</i> /'wep/ <i>web</i> /'wis.ki/ <i>whiskey</i>

In the case of single English onsets /p/, /t/, and /k/ (or more precisely [p<sup>h</sup>], [t<sup>h</sup>], and [k<sup>h</sup>]), Thai and Indonesian ways of adaptation differ in terms of aspiration. In Thai, aspiration is one of its contrastive features. Yet in the adaptation of English onsets, Thai aspiration is unpredictable. Single English onsets [p<sup>h</sup>], [t<sup>h</sup>], and [k<sup>h</sup>] therefore can be either

aspirated (/ph/, /th/, /kh/) or deaspirated (/p/, /t/, /k/) when borrowed into Thai. In Indonesian, aspiration is not a contrastive feature. Indonesian consonants are basically unaspirated and therefore single English onsets [p<sup>h</sup>], [t<sup>h</sup>], and [k<sup>h</sup>] are deaspirated (/p/, /t/, /k/) when borrowed into Indonesian. The table below exemplifies the differences between Thai and Indonesian adaptation of single aspirated onsets in English loanwords.

*Table 5.3*  
*English Aspirated Onset Adaptation*

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
<b>[p<sup>h</sup>]</b> [p <sup>h</sup> ʊd.ɪŋ] <i>pudding</i> [p <sup>h</sup> aʊnd] <i>pound</i>	<b>/ph/</b> <b>/phút.dɪŋ/</b>	-	<b>/p/</b> <b>/pu.dɪŋ/</b> <b>/pɔn/</b>	deaspiration
	<b>/p/</b> <b>/pɔ:n/</b>	deaspiration		
<b>[t<sup>h</sup>]</b> [t <sup>h</sup> i:m] <i>team</i> [t <sup>h</sup> ʌn] <i>ton</i>	<b>/th/</b> <b>/thi:m/</b>	-	<b>/t/</b> <b>/tim/</b> <b>/tɔn/</b>	deaspiration
	<b>/t/</b> <b>/tan/</b>	deaspiration		
<b>[k<sup>h</sup>]</b> [k <sup>h</sup> æl.kjʊ.ləs] <i>calculus</i> [k <sup>h</sup> a:r'tu:n] <i>cartoon</i>	<b>/kh/</b> <b>/khɛ:w.khu:.lát/</b>	-	<b>/k/</b> <b>/kal.ku.lus/</b> <b>/kar.tun/</b>	deaspiration

In addition to the single English onsets with equivalent sounds in both Thai and Indonesian which have been listed earlier, there are also those which are foreign to the

phonological systems of the borrowing languages. Single English onsets that do not exist in Thai and Indonesian are usually adapted through alterations. They are replaced with resembling onsets in the borrowing languages. In the table below are some examples of alterations of single English onsets that cannot be found in the phonological systems of Thai and Indonesian, and the types of phonological changes underlying them.

*Table 5.4*  
*Single English Onsets with No Equivalent Sound in both Thai and Indonesian*

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
<b>/g/</b> <i>/gæŋ/ gang</i> <i>/ˈslou.gən/ slogan</i>	<b>/k/</b> <i>/kʰéŋ/</i> <i>/saloː.kɛːn/</i>	devoicing	<b>/g/*</b> <i>/gɛŋ/</i> <i>/slo.gan/</i>	-
<b>/θ/</b> <i>/ˈθaɪ.rɔɪd/ thyroid</i>	<b>/th/</b> <i>/ˈthaj.rɔːj/</i>	strengthening/ fortition	<b>/t/</b> <i>/ti.rɔɪt/</i>	strengthening/ fortition
<b>/v/</b> <i>/tiː.ˈviː/ TV</i> <i>/ˈvɪt.ə.mɪn/ vitamin</i>	<b>/w/</b> <i>/thiː.wiː/</i> <i>/wɪtaː.mɪn/</i>	lenition: approxi- mation	<b>/f/</b> <i>/ti.fi/</i> <i>/fi.ta.mɪn/</i>	devoicing

/z/	/s/	devoicing	/s/	devoicing
/di.'zɑm/ <i>design</i>	/di:.sɑ:j/  /si:.nô:n/  /sík.sék/		/di.sain/  /se.nɔn/	
/'ze.nɑ:n/ <i>xenon</i>				
/'zɪg.zæg/ <i>zigzag</i>				
			/z/  /zik.zak/	-
/ʃ/	/ch/	strengthening/ fortition	/sj/	clustering
/ʃɒk/ <i>shock</i>	/chɔk/		/sjɒk/	
/ʃɒp.ɪŋ/ <i>shopping</i>	/chɔp.pɪŋ/		/sjɔ.piŋ/	
/tʃ/	/ch/	strengthening/ fortition	/c/	strengthening/ fortition
/tʃek/ <i>check</i>	/chék/		/cek/	
/'tʃeri/ <i>cherry</i>	/chə:.rí:/ or /chə:. lí:/		/ce.ri/	
/'fɜ:.ni.tʃəʳ/ <i>furniture</i>				
			/t/  /fur.ni.tur/	strengthening/ fortition
	/c/  /fə:.ni.cə:/	strengthening/ fortition		



<b>/dʒ/</b> /'di:..dʒeɪ/ <i>Dj</i> /'dʒæk.ɪt/ <i>jacket</i> /dʒi:nz/ <i>jeans</i> /'dʒeli/ <i>jelly</i>	<b>/c/</b> /di:.ce:/ /cɛk.kêt/	strengthening/ fortition	<b>/ʃ/</b> /di.ʃe/ /ʃa.ket/ /ʃin/ /ʃe.li/	strengthening/ fortition
	<b>/j/</b> /ji:n/ /jen.lî:/	lenition: approxi- mation		
<b>[ɹ]</b> /'klo:..ɹi:n/ <i>chlorine</i> /ɹi:m/ <i>ream</i>	<b>/r/</b> /khlɔ:.. ri:n/ /ri:m/	strengthening/ fortition	<b>/r/</b> /klo.rin/ /rim/	strengthening/ fortition

*Note: \*Exception: onset with equivalent sound*

As can be seen in the examples above, in both Thai and Indonesian the single nonnative onsets are altered based on either shared places-and-manners of articulation (/g/>/k/, /v/>/f/, /z/>/s/) or auditory similarities (/v/>/w/, /θ/>/th, t/, /ʃ/>/ch, sj/, /tʃ/>/ch, c/, /dʒ/>/c, j, ʃ/). However, there are few exceptions in Indonesian. The voiced velar plosive onset /g/ does not change when borrowed into Indonesian, since this consonant is one of the native sounds in the phonological system of this language. The English voiced alveolar fricative /z/, which was once nonnative to the Indonesian phonological inventory, retains its features in the

Indonesian /zik.zak/ *zigzag* probably because this onset has gained acceptance in the speech of the speakers. The English /tʃ/ in /'fɜː.nɪ.tʃə/ *furniture* is adapted into the Indonesian /t/, as in /fur.ni.tur/ *furnitur*, probably because Indonesian people perceived the letter *t* as the English sound /t/, like in /tur/ *tour*. This adaptation of /tʃ/ > /t/ in Indonesian might indicate that the loanword was possibly borrowed through written means instead of oral communication.

Table 5.4 also shows that English, Thai, and Indonesian have different types of the onset /r/. In English, the onset /r/ is actually an alveolar approximant [ɹ]. On the other hand, in both Thai and Indonesian it is in the form of an alveolar trill [r]. The difference between those in Thai and Indonesian is that the Indonesian onset [r] is always clearly pronounced, while the Thai [r] can be either pronounced or replaced by the lateral approximant [l], especially in informal speech. For instance, the English [ɹiːm] *ream* is adapted into either [riːm] or [liːm] in Thai, and into [rim] in Indonesian.

Besides alterations, English loanwords in Thai and Indonesian are adapted through the addition of the glottal stop /ʔ/ syllable-initially, in the onset positions. This process is categorized as prothesis.

Table 5.5  
Prothesis of the Glottal Stop /ʔ/

English	Thai	Indonesian
#V	#ʔV	#ʔV
/ə'kaʊnt/ <i>account</i>	/ʔé:k.kháw/	/ʔa.kun/
/æl.kə,hɒl/ <i>alcohol</i>	/ʔɛw.kɔ:.hɔ:/	/ʔal.kɔ.hɒl/
/'æn.ti,bɒd.i/ <i>antibody</i>	/ʔɛ:n.tì.bɔ:.dî:/	/ʔan.ti.bɔ.di/
/,eɪ.ti:'em/ <i>ATM</i>	/ʔe:.thi:.ʔem/	/ʔa.te.ʔem/
/'i:.meɪl/ <i>email</i>	/ʔi:.me:w/	/ʔi.mel/
/'ɪn.troʊ/ <i>intro</i>	/ʔɪn.thro:/	/ʔin.tro/
/'ɒ.pə.reɪ.təʳ/ <i>operator</i>	/ʔo:.pə:.re:.tâ:/	/ʔo.pə.ra.tɔr/
/'ɒk.sɪ.dʒən/ <i>oxygen</i>	/ʔɔ:k.sɪ.cên/	/ʔok.si.gen/
/'pɪk.ʌp/ <i>pick-up</i>	/pɪk.ʔâp/	/pik.ʔap/

As exemplified in the table above, in both Thai and Indonesian the glottal stop /ʔ/ is added before a vowel, as a single onset of a syllable, when there is no other consonant preceding it.

## 2. Single Coda Adaptation

In addition to the single onsets scrutinized beforehand, the single codas of English loanwords in Thai and Indonesian also undergo several forms of phonological adaptation that demand further attention. There are some single codas existing in both the donor and borrowing languages, which do not change phonologically in their loan forms, and there are some others specific to only English, which trigger adaptation as they are transferred into Thai and/or Indonesian.

In the first group are the single English codas that are allowed in the phonological inventories of Thai and Indonesian because both of these languages possess

sounds that are equivalent to them. These final consonants usually retain their phonological forms and do not differ significantly to the English counterparts. Based on the data of this research, these sounds are: /m/, /n/, and /ŋ/. Table 5.6 provides some examples of English loanwords containing the aforementioned single codas:

*Table 5.6*  
*Single English Codas with Equivalent Sounds in both Thai and Indonesian*

English	Thai	Indonesian
<b>/m/</b> /ge <b>m</b> / <i>game</i> /kə <b>m</b> ˈpjʊː.tə/ <i>computer</i> /ˌæ.l.jəˈmɪn.i. <b>əm</b> / <i>aluminium</i>	<b>/m/</b> /keː <b>m</b> / /khə <b>m</b> .phíw.tâ:/ /ʔaluː.miː.ni <b>am</b> /	<b>/m/</b> /ge <b>m</b> / /kə <b>m</b> .pu.tər/ /ʔa.lu.mi.ni <b>um</b> /
<b>/n/</b> /tʌ <b>n</b> / <i>ton</i> /ˈ <b>n</b> .troʊ/ <i>intro</i> /kouˈke <b>n</b> / <i>cocaine</i>	<b>/n/</b> /ta <b>n</b> / /ʔin.throː/ /khoː.kheː <b>n</b> /	<b>/n/</b> /tə <b>n</b> / /ʔin.tro/ /ko.kai <b>n</b> /
<b>/ŋ/</b> /gæ <b>ŋ</b> / <i>gang</i> /ˈboʊ.li <b>ŋ</b> / <i>bowling</i> /ˈpuð.li <b>ŋ</b> / <i>pudding</i>	<b>/ŋ/</b> /ké <b>ŋ</b> / /boː.li <b>ŋ</b> / /phút.dî <b>ŋ</b> /	<b>/ŋ/</b> /gæ <b>ŋ</b> / /bo.li <b>ŋ</b> / /pu.dî <b>ŋ</b> /

Single English codas that do not exist in Thai and Indonesian usually undergo adaptation. Those changes can be classified into two types: alterations (/b>/p/, /d>/t/, /g>/k/, /s>/t/, /ʃ>/t/, /ʃ>/s/, /l>/n, w/, [ɹ]>/r/) and deletion (/r>/Ø). In Table 5.7 below are some examples of the single coda adaptation found in the data.

Table 5.7  
Single English Codas with No Equivalent Sound in both Thai and Indonesian

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
<b>/b/</b> /klʌ <b>b</b> / <i>club</i> /web <b>/</b> <i>web</i> /'web <b>.</b> sait/ <i>website</i>	<b>/p/</b> /khlà <b>p</b> / <i>club</i> /wé <b>p</b> / <i>web</i> /wé <b>p</b> .sáj/ <i>website</i>	final-devoicing	<b>/p/</b> /klup <b>/</b> /wep <b>/</b> /wep <b>.</b> sait/ <i>website</i>	final-devoicing
<b>/d/</b> /'bæ <b>d</b> .mín.tən/ <i>badminton</i> /,daʊn'lou <b>d</b> / <i>download</i>	<b>/t/</b> /bè:t.min.tân/ <i>badminton</i> /da:w.lò:t/ <i>download</i>	final-devoicing	<b>/t/</b> /bat.min.tən/ <i>badminton</i> /dɔn.lot/ <i>download</i>	final-devoicing
<b>/g/</b> /'hɒt.dɒ <b>g</b> / <i>hotdog</i> /wɪ <b>g</b> / <i>wig</i> /'zɪg.zæ <b>g</b> / <i>zigzag</i>	<b>/k/</b> /hót.dò <b>k</b> / <i>hotdog</i> /wɪ <b>k</b> / <i>wig</i> /sík.sék/ <i>zigzag</i>	final-devoicing	<b>/k/</b> /hɒt.dò <b>k</b> / <i>hotdog</i> /wik/ <i>wig</i> /zik.zak/ <i>zigzag</i>	final-devoicing
<b>/s/</b> /'beɪs.bɔ:l/ <i>baseball</i> /'boʊ.nə <b>s</b> / <i>bonus</i> /'ten.ɪ <b>s</b> / <i>tennis</i>	<b>/t/</b> /bé:t.bɔn/ <i>baseball</i> /bo:.nát/ <i>bonus</i> /then.nít/ <i>tennis</i>	strengthening/ fortition	<b>/s/</b> /bis.bəl/ <i>baseball</i> /bo.nus/ <i>bonus</i> /ten.is/ <i>tennis</i>	-
<b>/ʃ/</b> /flæʃ/ <i>flash</i>	<b>/t/</b> /flét/ <i>flash</i>	strengthening/ fortition	<b>/s/</b> /fləs/ <i>flash</i>	depalatalization
<b>/l/</b> /'beɪs.bɔ:l/ <i>baseball</i> /,mʌl.ti'mi:.di.ə/ <i>multimedia</i> /'kælkjʊ.ləs/ <i>calculus</i> /'i:.meɪl/ <i>email</i>	<b>/n/</b> /bé:t.bɔn/ <i>baseball</i> /man.tĩ.mi:.di.ə/ <i>multimedia</i> /'kæl.kjʊ.ləs/ <i>calculus</i> /'i:.meɪl/ <i>email</i>	nasalization	<b>/l/</b> /bis.bəl/ <i>baseball</i> /mul.ti.me.di.ə/ <i>multimedia</i> /kal.ku.lus/ <i>calculus</i> /ʔi.mel/ <i>email</i>	-

	<b>/w/</b> /khe:w.khu:. lát/ /ʔi:.me:w/	lenition: l-vocal- ization		
<b>/r/ or [ɹ]</b> /ba:r/ <i>bar</i> /'foul.dəʀ/ <i>folder</i> /kəm'pju:.təʀ/ <i>computer</i>	Ø /ba:/ /flo:.də:/ or / fo:n.dê:/ /khəm.phíw. tê:/	deletion: apocope	<b>/r/</b> /baʀ/ /fol.dəʀ/ /kəm. pu.təʀ/	strengthening/ fortition

In the adaptation of the single codas above, there are some changes that are specific to Thai and do not occur in Indonesian, namely: /s/ > /t/, /ʃ/ > /t/, /l/ > /n, w/, /r/ > Ø. On the other hand, the alterations of single codas /ʃ/ > /s/ and [ɹ] > /r/ are found to be specific to only Indonesian. All of those phenomena might occur because the syllable-final consonants /s/, /l/ and /r/ are not allowed in Thai but in Indonesian. Moreover, the English alveolar /s/ and post-alveolar /ʃ/ seem to be perceived as identical sounds by both Thais and Indonesians. It can be indicated by the fact that the two sounds are adapted into one sound in both languages: /s, ʃ/ > /t/ in Thai and /s, ʃ/ > /s/ in Indonesian.

However, in Thai it is not always the case with the coda /s/. Even though the coda /s/ is basically not permissible in the phonological system of this language, some native speakers, particularly those who also speak English, do sometimes pronounce this consonant when speaking Thai. Often it is used as an alternative to the coda /t/ in English loanwords. Some examples of the loanwords that can be pronounced with the coda [s] in Thai are:

<b>English Coda /s/</b>	<b>→ Thai Coda [s]</b>
/bɒs/ <i>boss</i>	→ [bó:s]
/ˈbeɪs.bɔ:l/ <i>baseball</i>	→ [bé:s.bɔn]
/ˈplæs.tər/ <i>plaster</i>	→ [phlá:s.tê:] or [phá:s.tê:]
/ˈplæs.tɪk/ <i>plastic</i>	→ [phlá:s.tɪk] or [phá:s.tɪk]

The single coda adaptation of English loanwords that occurs in both Thai and Indonesian is devoicing. It is the process where voiced consonants become voiceless. Some examples of coda devoicing of English loanwords that can be found in both Thai and Indonesian are: /b, d, g/ (voiced) > /p, t, k/ (voiceless). Unlike those in English, the final stop consonants /p, t, k/ in both Thai and Indonesian have no audible release, which are more precisely written as [p̚, t̚, k̚]. Consequently, final English released stops tend to change to unreleased ones when borrowed into both Thai and Indonesian. Some final released consonants in English that become unreleased in both Thai and Indonesian are exemplified in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8  
Final Released Stop Adaptation

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
<b>/p/</b> /su:p/ <i>soup</i> /ˈpɪk.ʌp/ <i>pick-up</i>	<b>/p̚/</b> [súp̚] [pík.ʔâp̚]	released> unreleased	<b>/p̚/</b> [suṔ̚] [pik.ʔap̚]	released> unreleased
<b>/t/</b> /dʒet/ <i>jet</i> /ˈtʃɒk.lət/ <i>chocolate</i>	<b>/t̚/</b> [céṭ̚] [chók.ko:lét̚]	released> unreleased	<b>/t̚/</b> [jeṭ̚] [cɔk.laṭ̚]	released> unreleased
<b>/k/</b> /tʃek/ <i>check</i> /ˈklæs.ɪk/ <i>classic</i>	<b>/k̚/</b> [chéḱ̚] [khlá:t.sìḱ̚]	released> unreleased	<b>/k̚/</b> [ceḱ̚] [kla.sìḱ̚]	released> unreleased

In informal Indonesian, the coda /k/ is often replaced with the glottal stop [ʔ]. It is due to the fact that in this language [ʔ] is an allophone of /k/ in the syllable coda. The use of the glottal stop [ʔ] as an alternate pronunciation of the single coda /k/ is not found in Thai. Some examples of this case are the Indonesian words for *shock*, *plastic*, *acrylic*, and *cocktail*.

English Coda /k/	→ Indonesian Coda [k] or [ʔ]
/ʃɒk/ <i>shock</i>	→ [sjɒk] or [sjɒʔ]
/'plæs.tɪk/ <i>plastic</i>	→ [plas.tɪk] or [plas.tiʔ]
/ə'kriɪ.lɪk/ <i>acrylic</i>	→ [ʔa.kri.liɪk] or [ʔa.kri.liʔ]
/'kɒk.teɪl/ <i>cocktail</i>	→ [kɒk.tail] or [kɒʔ.tail]

### 3. Onset Cluster Adaptation

Onset clusters are groups of syllable-initial consonants that have no intervening vowel. The adaptation of onset clusters, especially the first consonants, tends to have similar rules to the single onsets. If the onset clusters are permissible in Thai and Indonesian phonological systems, they are likely to retain their forms. Some of the clusters that do not undergo phonological adaptation are: /dr/, /fr/, and /fl/ in Thai, and /dr/, /gr/, /fr/, and /fl/ in Indonesian. However, as noted before, the English second consonant /r/ in those onset clusters is more precisely in the form of an alveolar approximant [ɹ]. In both Thai and Indonesian, it gets stronger into an alveolar trill [r].



Table 5.9  
English Onset Clusters with Equivalent Sounds in Thai and  
Indonesian

English	Thai	Indonesian
<b>/dr/</b> /'hai. <b>dr</b> ə.dʒən/ <i>hydrogen</i>	<b>/dr/</b> /haj. <b>dro</b> :.cên/	<b>/dr/</b> /hi. <b>dro</b> .gen/
<b>/gr/</b> /'proʊ. <b>gr</b> æm/ <i>program</i>	<b>/kr/*</b> /pro: <b>kr</b> ɛ:m/	<b>/gr/</b> /pro. <b>gr</b> am/
<b>/fr/</b> /'fri:/ <i>free</i>	<b>/fr/</b> /'fri:/	<b>/fr/</b> /'fri/
<b>/fl/</b> /'flæʃ/ <i>flash</i>	<b>/fl/</b> /'flét/	<b>/fl/</b> /'flɛs/

*Note: \*Exception: first consonant devoicing*

Regarding the English onset cluster /gr/, in Thai it is adapted into /kr/, in which the voiced-velar-plosive first consonant /g/ is devoiced into the voiceless-velar-plosive /k/. Unlike its counterpart in Indonesian, which does not change phonologically, the first consonant of this cluster is devoiced due to the phonological inventory of Thai that does not include this consonant.

In English, some onset clusters are composed of aspirated stops (/p<sup>h</sup>/, /t<sup>h</sup>/, /k<sup>h</sup>/) followed by liquids (/r/, /l/). The aspiration takes the form of making the liquids voiceless. Similar to the adaptation of the single onsets, the first aspirated consonants of English onset clusters can either stay aspirated (/ph/, /th/, /kh/) or become deaspirated (/p/, /t/, /k/) in Thai. In Indonesian, those onset clusters' first consonants are adapted into the unaspirated stops (/p/, /t/, /k/) only. The examples in Table 17 illustrates how the

English onset clusters /p<sup>h</sup>l/, /p<sup>h</sup>r/, /t<sup>h</sup>r/, /k<sup>h</sup>r/, and /k<sup>h</sup>l/ are adapted into Thai and Indonesian.

Table 5.10

*English Onset Clusters' First Aspirated Consonant Adaptation*

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/p <sup>h</sup> l/ /'plæs.tɪk/ <i>plastic</i>	/phl/ /'phlá:s.tɪk/	-	/pl/ /'plas.tɪk/	deaspiration
/p <sup>h</sup> r/ /'prɒu.græm/ <i>pro-gram</i>	/pr/ /'pro:kɾɛ:m/	deaspiration	/pr/ /'pro.gram/	deaspiration
/t <sup>h</sup> r/ /'m.trou/ <i>intro</i> /'spek.trəm/ <i>spec-trum</i>	/thr/ /'ʔin.thro:/	-	/tr/ /'ʔin.tro/ /'spek.trum/	deaspiration
	/tr/ /'sàpék.trâm/	deaspiration		
/k <sup>h</sup> r/ /'kred.ɪt/ <i>credit</i> /'kɒŋ.kɾi:t/ or / /'kan.kɾit/ <i>concrete</i>	/khr/ /'khre:.dɪt/	-	/kr/ /'kre.dɪt/ /'kɒŋ.kɾit/	deaspiration
	/kr/ /'khɔ:n.kɾi:t/	deaspiration		
/k <sup>h</sup> l/ /'klʌb/ <i>club</i>	/khl/ /'khlàp/	-	/kl/ /'klup/	deaspiration

In the informal Thai speech, the onset clusters' second consonant /r/ can be alternatively substituted by the alveolar lateral approximant [l], but not the vice versa. This change is only specific to Thai and is not present in Indonesian. Below are some examples of the use of [l] as an alternate substitute replacing /r/ in the second consonant positions of Thai onset clusters.

<b>English Onset</b>	→	<b>Thai Onset Clusters'</b>
<b>Clusters' Second</b>		<b>Second Consonant [r] or [l]</b>
<b>Consonant /r/</b>		
/ə'krɪl.ɪk/ <i>acrylic</i>	→	[ʔà.khri.lɪk] or [ʔà.khli.lɪk]
/kri:m/ <i>cream</i>	→	[khri:m] or [khli:m]
/fri:/ <i>free</i>	→	[fri:] or [fli:]

In addition to the use of [l] replacing /r/ which has been stated above, in the informal Thai speech both the onset clusters' second consonants /r/ and /l/ can be unpronounced as well. The phenomenon might occur due to the fact that omitting the second consonants /r/ and /l/ makes the onsets relatively easier to pronounce. This deletion however is also specific to Thai and does not exist in Indonesian. Some examples of this case are listed as follows:

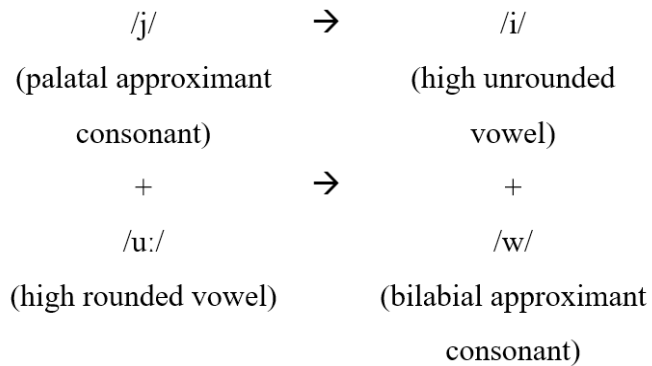
<b>English Onset</b>	→	<b>Thai Onset Clusters' Second</b>
<b>Clusters' Second</b>		<b>Consonants /r/ and /l/ or [Ø]</b>
<b>Consonants /r/ and /l/</b>		<b>(deleted /r/ and /l/)</b>
/fri:/ <i>free</i>	→	[fri:] or [fi:]
/kri:m/ <i>cream</i>	→	[khri:m] or [khi:m]
/ˈspek.trəm/ <i>spectrum</i>	→	[sàpék.trâm] or [sàpék.tâm]
/ˈplɑːstə/ <i>plaster</i>	→	[phlá:s.tê:] or [phá:s.tê:]
/ˈplæs.tɪk/ <i>plastic</i>	→	[phlá:s.tìk] or [phá:s.tìk]

As both Thai and Indonesian do not allow the palatal approximant /j/ to be positioned in the second place in the onset clusters, when it presents in English, it is usually either deleted or vowelized. Therefore, there is phonological adaptation from onset clusters into single onsets.

*Table 5.11*  
*Onset Clusters' Second Consonant /j/ Adaptation*

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
<b>/kj/</b> /'kæl.kjʊ.ləs/ <i>calculus</i>	<b>/kh/</b> /khɛ:w.khu:. lát/	j-deletion	<b>/k/</b> /kal.ku.lus/	j-deletion
<b>/pj/</b> /kəm'pjʊ:.təʳ/ <i>computer</i>	<b>/phi/</b> /khɔm.phíw. tê:/	j-vocalization	<b>/p/</b> /kəm.pu.tər/	j-deletion
<b>/tj/</b> /'tju:.təʳ/ <i>tutor</i>	<b>/ti/</b> /tiw.tê:/	j-vocalization	<b>/t/</b> /tu.tər/	j-deletion

The abovementioned examples indicate that in Indonesian, the onset cluster Cj is simply adapted into C (CjV > CV, where normally V = u): /kjʊ, pju, tju/ > /ku, pu, tu/. In Thai there are two possible types of adaptation to these onset clusters. The first one is like that in Indonesian, in which Cj is adapted into C without any significant change in the subsequent vowel, for instance, /kjʊ/ > /khu:/. Though there ensues lengthening from /ʊ/ to /u:/, but it is not counted as a significant change as the position of the tongue remains relatively the same when producing both vowels. The other one is the vocalization of /j/ into the high unrounded vowel /i/. In this second case, the subsequent high rounded vowel /u:/ is consonantalized into the bilabial approximant /w/. The adaptation can be illustrated like so:



The last sort of onset cluster adaptation to be discussed here is vowel insertion (anaptyxis). In accordance with the research data, onset cluster anaptyxis is found to be peculiar to the English loanwords in Thai and not to those in Indonesian. It is the insertion of the Thai vowel /a/ which normally occurs between sC onset clusters, such as /sp/, /st/, /sl/, and /sk/. In contrast, the Indonesian onset clusters tend to maintain the sC structures like those in English. Table 5.12 exemplifies the adaptation of English sC onset clusters in Thai and Indonesian

Table 5.12  
English 'sC' Onset Cluster Adaptation

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/sp/ /'spɒn.səʃ/ <i>sponsor</i>	/sa-p/ /'sapɔːn.səʃ:/	anaptyxis	/sp/ /'spɒn.sɔr/	-
/st/ /'stɪk.əʃ/ <i>sticker</i>	/sa-t/ /'satɪk.kəʃ:/	anaptyxis	/st/ /'sti.kər/	-
/sl/ /'sloʊ.gən/ <i>slogan</i>	/sa-l/ /'salɔː.kɛːn/	anaptyxis	/sl/ /'slo.gən/	-
/sk/ /'skæn/ <i>scan</i>	/sa-k/ /'səkɛːn/	anaptyxis	/sk/ /'skɛn/	-
/skr/ /'skript/ <i>script</i>	/sa-khr/ /'səkhrɪp/	anaptyxis	/skr/ /'skrip/	-

#### 4. Coda Cluster Adaptation

Coda clusters are groups of syllable-final consonants which do not have an intervening vowel. Most coda clusters of the English loanwords are adapted into both Thai and Indonesian by retaining their first consonants and deleting the rest (the second consonants). Table 5.13 provides some examples of coda cluster adaptation in the two languages by which the clusters' second consonants are deleted. Those omitted second consonants are: /t/, /d/, /k/, and /z/.

Table 5.13

*Coda Cluster Adaptation Which Retains the Clusters' First Consonants*

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/pt/ /skript/ <i>script</i>	/p/ /sàkhrip/	t-deletion	/p/ /skrip/	t-deletion
/ft/ /lift/ <i>lift</i>	/p/ or /f/ /lip/ or /lif/		/f/ /lif/	
/nt/ /si'ment/ <i>cement</i>	/n/ /si:.men/		/n/ /sə.men/	
/nd/ /paund/ <i>pound</i>	/n/ /pɔ:n/	d-deletion	/n/ /pɔn/	d-deletion
/sk/ /disk/ <i>disk</i>	/t/ or /s/ /dít/ or /dís/	k-deletion	/s/ /dis/	k-deletion
/ŋk/ /liŋk/ <i>link</i>	/ŋ/ /liŋ/		/ŋ/ /liŋ/	
/nz/ /dʒi:nz/ <i>jeans</i>	/n/ /ji:n/	z-deletion	/n/ /jin/	z-deletion

Most of the data in the table indicate that the permitted codas are likely to be retained, while the impermissible ones tend to be deleted. For instance, the coda /z/ is not allowed in the phonological systems of Thai and Indonesian, therefore the English /dʒi:nz/ *jeans* is adapted into /ji:n/ in Thai and /jin/ in Indonesian, where the permissible coda /n/ is preserved. However, the permissibility of final consonants

in the borrowing languages seems not to be the only factor contributing to this type of adaptation. In the case of the Thai word for /voult/ *volt*, the impermissible coda /l/ is preserved by further being adapted into /w/ or /n/, as in /wó:w/ or /wó:n/, instead of preserving the more permissible final consonant /t/, as can be seen in Table 5.13.

Besides the coda clusters' first consonant retention, there is also the case where the coda cluster adaptation occurs by preserving the second consonants, as shown by Table 5.13.

Table 5.14

*Coda Cluster Adaptation Which Retains the Clusters' Second Consonants*

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/rt/	/t/	r-deletion	/rt/	-
/sə'pɔ:rt/ <i>support</i>	/sáp.phò:t/		/su.pɔrt/	
/lm/	/m/	l-deletion	/ləm/	vowel insertion:
/fɪlm/ <i>film</i>	/fi:m/		/filəm/	/ə/ anaptyxis
/lf/	/p/ or /f/		/ləf/	
/gɒlf/ <i>golf</i>	/kóp/ or /kóf/		/gɔləf/	

In the examples above, coda clusters' second consonants tend to be retained in both Thai and Indonesian when they are preceded by the liquid /r/ or /l/. In Thai, the clusters' second consonants are preserved by deleting the first consonant /r/ or /l/. Conversely, in Indonesian those second consonants are retained by splitting the clusters and adding a vowel. In the second and third examples (/fɪlm/ > /filəm/ & /gɒlf/ > /gɔləf/) we can find a pattern of the insertion (anaptyxis) of the vowel /ə/ between IC coda clusters, such as /lm/ and /lf/. With reference to the Indonesian borrowing of /sə'pɔ:rt/ *support* > /su.pɔrt/, there is an exception where the coda cluster /rt/ is largely not subject to any change as it is not

simplified to a single coda. It might occur because the word has gained acceptance or become popular in Indonesian communities.

Since most of the English loanwords' coda clusters are reduced to single consonants, they are treated similarly to single codas. If the single remaining consonants of the coda clusters are permissible in the borrowing languages' phonological systems, they are likely to retain their forms. If they are illicit, they undergo alterations akin to the single coda adaptation. Based on the research data, coda clusters' remaining consonant alterations occur in Thai much more often than in Indonesian.

*Table 5.15*  
*Coda Clusters' Remaining Consonant Alterations in Thai*

English	Thai	Process
<b>/ft/</b> /l <b>ift</b> / <i>lift</i> <b>/lf/</b> /g <b>olf</b> / <i>golf</i>	<b>/p/</b> /l <b>íp</b> / <b>/p/</b> /k <b>óp</b> /	fortition: /f/ > /p/
<b>/sk/</b> /d <b>isk</b> / <i>disk</i>	<b>/t/</b> /d <b>ít</b> /	fortition: /s/ > /t/
<b>/lt/</b> /v <b>oult</b> / <i>volt</i>	<b>/w/</b> /wó: <b>w</b> / or	lenition: /l/ > /w/
	<b>/n/</b> /wó: <b>n</b> /	nasalization: /l/ > /n/

Most alterations listed in Table 5.15 take place only in Thai. The reason is that most of the single remaining codas above are allowed in Indonesian but not in Thai. Therefore, in Thai the remaining codas /f/, /s/, and /l/ need to be altered



into /p/, /t/, and /w/ or /n/ respectively.

## 5. Intervocalic Consonant Adaptation

In addition to single onsets, single codas, onset clusters, and coda clusters explicated above, there is also another group called intervocalic or medial consonants. An intervocalic consonant is the one situated in the middle of a word, usually between vowels, as a link between two adjacent syllables.

The typical phonological adaptation of the intervocalic consonants found in this research is gemination. It is the doubling of a single intervocalic consonant which results in a sequence of two identical consonants. The data show that this phonological change happens only to the English loanwords in Thai but not to those in Indonesian. In the following table, we can see the gemination of the English intervocalic consonants /k/, /p/, and /n/ in Thai.

Table 5.16  
*Intervocalic Consonant Gemination*

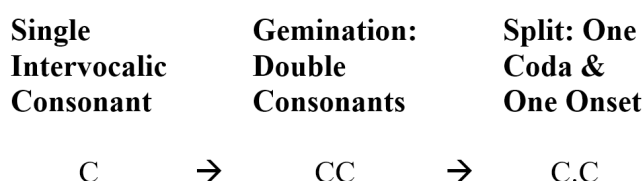
English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
<b>/k/</b> /'dʒæk.ɪt/ <i>jacket</i> /'pəʊ.kə/ <i>poker</i> /ə'kaʊnt/ <i>account</i>	<b>/k.k/</b> /cék.k.kêt/ /pó:k.kâ:/ <b>/k.kh/</b> /ʔé:k.kháw/	gemination	<b>/k/</b> /ʃa.ket/ /po.kə/ <i>poker</i> /ʔa.kun/	-
<b>/p/</b> /'kɒp.i/ or /'kɑ:.pi/ <i>copy</i> /sə'pɔ:rt/ <i>support</i>	<b>/p.p/</b> /kóp.pî:/ <b>/p.ph/</b> /sáp.phò:t/	gemination	<b>/p/</b> /kə.pi/ /su.pɔrt/	-
<b>/n/</b> /'ten.ɪs/ <i>tennis</i>	<b>/n.n/</b> /then.nít/	gemination	<b>/n/</b> /te.nis/	-

Rather than become geminated like those in Thai, the English intervocalic consonants in Indonesian tend to function as purely the onsets of the subsequent syllables. As a result of that adaptation, the preceding syllables normally have no codas since the intervocalic consonants have moved to the next syllables. It might indicate the Indonesian preference for CV syllable structures rather than VC ones.

In Thai, gemination might occur due to these three following factors: (1) Based on the data of this research, Thai syllables have a disposition to begin with onsets and end with either long vowels or coda consonants. Therefore, intervocalic consonants are often geminated in order to function as the codas of their preceding vowels and the onsets of their subsequent ones; (2) Some intervocalic consonants in English are ambisyllabic, which are shared phonetically by two contiguous syllables. For example, /p/ in the word *copy* can be pronounced as a coda of the first syllable, like in /'kɒp.i/, or as an onset of the second syllable, like in /'kɑ:.pi/. This unclear syllable separation caused by the intervocalic consonant often triggers gemination; (3) The writing of the English words sometimes also causes gemination of the intervocalic consonants in Thai. Some English words might be orthographically written with double consonants but phonetically pronounced with single intervocalic consonants. For instance, the English *account* is written with double orthographic consonants *cc* but pronounced with a single intervocalic consonant /k<sup>h</sup>/ as in /ə'k<sup>h</sup>aunt/. So as to mimic the orthography of the word, in Thai the /k<sup>h</sup>/ is geminated

into /k.kh/ as in /ʔé:**k.kh**áw/. Some other words written with double orthographic consonants which also undergo gemination in Thai are *support* and *tennis*.

As stated in the previous paragraph, for an English intervocalic consonant to be geminated in Thai, it also has to split into two: a coda of the preceding syllable and an onset of the subsequent syllable. The process can be pictured as follows:



If the geminated sequences are not allowed in the Thai phonology, they will be adapted into homorganic consonant sequences. In a homorganic consonant sequence (which further splits into a coda and an onset), the coda of the preceding syllable shares the same place of articulation as the onset of the next syllable. The homorganic-gemination in Thai can be exemplified by the adaptation of the intervocalic consonants /d/, /s/ and /l/ into /t.d/, /t.s/, and /n.l/ respectively instead of /d.d/, /s.s/, and /l.l/.

Table 5.17  
Intervocalic Consonant Homorganic-Gemination

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/d/ /'pu <b>d</b> .ɪŋ/ <i>pudding</i>	/t.d/ /phú <b>t</b> .dīŋ/	homorganic gemination	/d/ /pu <b>.d</b> ɪŋ/	-
/s/ /'klæs <b>.s</b> ɪk/ <i>classic</i> /pə'tæs <b>.s</b> .i.əm/ <i>potassium</i>	/t.s/ /khlá:t <b>.s</b> ɪk/ /po:t <b>.t</b> é:t sām/	homorganic gemination	/s/ /kla <b>.s</b> ɪk/ /po.ta <b>.s</b> ium/	-
/l/ /'dɒl <b>.ə</b> r/ or / 'dɑ:l <b>.l</b> ə/ <i>dollar</i> /'gæl <b>.ə</b> n/ <i>gallon</i> /'dʒel <b>.i</b> / <i>jelly</i>	/n.l/ /dɔn <b>.l</b> â:/ /kɛn <b>.l</b> ɔn/ /jen <b>.l</b> î:/	homorganic gemination	/l/ /dɔ <b>.l</b> ar/ /ga <b>.l</b> ɔn/ /ʔe <b>.l</b> i/	-

### C. Vowel Adaptation

Vowels are sounds that normally function as syllable nuclei. Based on the research data, the vowels that are analyzed here can be divided into three groups: monophthongs, diphthongs, and triphthongs.

#### 1. Monophthong Adaptation

A monophthong is a single vowel which is produced without any changes in articulation. As it is pronounced, the articulatory organs' positions remain the same so that it has the same quality from the start to the end. Monophthongs are also known as stable vowels, pure vowels, or simple vowels.

While in English the duration of vowels does not necessarily differentiate meanings (English vowels differ

primarily based on whether they are tense or lax), in Thai it is prominently contrastive. In Indonesian, on the other hand, vowel length does not make any changes in word meanings. Thus, vowel lengthening and shortening tend to occur only in Thai. Table 5.18 below provides some examples of vowel length adaptation of English loanwords which is present in Thai and absent in Indonesian.

*Table 5.18*  
*Vowel Length Adaptation*

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
<b>/e/</b> /tʃek/ <i>check</i> /sel/ <i>cell</i>	<b>/e/</b> /chék/	lax > short	<b>/e/</b> /cek/ /sel/	-
	<b>/e:/</b> /se:w/	lax > long (lengthening)		
<b>/ɒ/</b> /bɒm/ <i>bomb</i> /bɒs/ <i>boss</i>	<b>/ɔ/</b> /bɔm/	lax > short	<b>/ɔ/</b> /bɔm/ /bɔs/	-
	<b>/ɔ:/</b> /bɔ:t/	lax > long (lengthening)		
<b>/i:/</b> /ri:m/ <i>ream</i> /tek'nɪk/ <i>technique</i>	<b>/i:/</b> /ri:m/	tense > long	<b>/i/</b> /rim/ /tek.nɪk/	-
	<b>/i/</b> /thék.nɪk/	tense > short (shortening)		
<b>/u:/</b> /'ju:.nɪt/ <i>unit</i> /su:p/ <i>soup</i>	<b>/u:/</b> /ju:.nɪt/	tense > long	<b>/u/</b> /?u.nɪt/ /sup/	-

There are two types of monophthong adaptation of

English loanwords which are scrutinized in this research: the adaptation of those that can be found and those that cannot be found in the phonological systems of Thai and Indonesian. Monophthongs that have equivalent sounds in the borrowing languages are called native monophthongs, while those which do not are called nonnative/foreign monophthongs. Thai and Indonesian have relatively similar lists of English monophthongs native to them. The English monophthongs which are found in both Thai and Indonesian phonological systems are: /ə/, /i/, /ɔ/, /e/, and /u/.

Table 5.19  
Native Monophthong Adaptation

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
<b>/ə/</b> /pər'sent/ <i>percent</i> /'lɒk.əʃ/ <i>locker</i> /'ɪn.tə.net/ or /'ɪn.tər.net/ <i>internet</i> /kəm'pjʊ.təʃ/ <i>computer</i>	<b>/ə:/</b> /pə:.sen/ /lók.kê:/ /ʔin.thə:.nèt/ or /ʔin.tə:.nèt/ /khəm.phíw. tâ:/	lax > long (lengthening)	<b>/ə/</b> /pər.sen/ /lɔ.kər/ /ʔin.tər.net/ /kəm.pu.tər/	-
<b>/i:/</b> /ri:m/ <i>ream</i> /kri:m/ <i>cream</i> /'vi:.zə/ <i>visa</i> /tek'nɪ:k/ <i>technique</i>	<b>/i:/</b> /ri:m/ /khri:m / or /khli:m/ or /khi:m/ /wi:.sâ:/	tense > long	<b>/i/</b> /rim/ /krim/ /fi.sa/ /tek.nik/	-

	/i/ /thék.nìk/	tense > short (shortening)		
/ɔ:/ /'klɔ:.rɪ:n/ <i>chlorine</i> /sə'pɔ:t/ or /sə'pɔ:rt/ <i>support</i> /'beɪs.bɔ:l/ <i>baseball</i>	/ɔ:/ /khɔ:.rɪ:n/ or / khɔ:.li:n/ /sáp.phò:t/	tense > long	/ɔ/ /klɔ.rɪn/ /su.pɔrt/ /bis.bəl/	-
	/ɔ/ /bé:t.bɔn/	tense > short (shortening)		
/e/ /'tɛn.ɪs/ <i>tennis</i> /'æn.tɪ.dʒɛn/ <i>antigen</i> /'kred.ɪt/ <i>credit</i> /'sɛl.jʊ.lɔɪd/ <i>celluloid</i>	/e/ /then.nít/ /ʔɛ:n.ticɛn/	lax > short	/e/ /te.nɪs/ /ʔan.ti.gen/ /kre.dɪt/ /se.lu.lɔɪt/	-
	/e:/ /khre:.dɪt/ or / khe:.dɪt/ /se:w.lu:.ləj/	lax > long (lengthening)		
/u:/ /ka:'tu:n/ or /ka:r'tu:n/ <i>cartoon</i> /'ju:.nɪt/ <i>unit</i> /su:p/ <i>soup</i>	/u:/ /ka:.tu:n/ /ju:.nɪt/	tense > long	/u/ /kartun/ /ʔu.nɪt/ /sup/	-

The main characteristic of most native monophthongs of English loanwords in both Thai and Indonesian is that they are inclined to remain relatively unchanged. In Thai, all of them are adapted into either long or short monophthongs nevertheless. As vowel duration does not affect meanings in Indonesian, there is no division of monophthongs between the long and short ones when they are borrowed into this language. Besides being one of the native monophthongs which retains its properties when borrowed into Thai and Indonesian, the sound /ə/ changes into many different vowels as well, and it is the most variously altered one amid all the monophthongs borrowed into both languages. The alterations of /ə/ will be further explained in the last part of this section (since most of them are conceivably triggered by the writing of the words).

Along with the native monophthongs mentioned previously, there are also those that are nonnative to both Thai and Indonesian. As they are borrowed, those nonnative monophthongs are normally replaced with the resembling vowels in the two languages. Some examples of the alterations of English monophthongs that do not exist in the borrowing languages are listed in the following table.



Table 5.20  
Nonnative Monophthong Adaptation

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/ɜ:/ /'fɜ:.nɪ.tʃəː/ <i>furniture</i>	/ə:/ /fə:.nɪcə:/	raising	/u/ /fur.ni.tur/	raising
/ʌ/ /'dɒu.nʌt/ <i>donut</i> /'pɪk.ʌp/ <i>pick-up</i>	/a/ /do:.nát/ /pík.ʔâp/	lowering	/a/ /do.nat/ /pik.ʔap/	lowering
/ɪ/ /'nɪk.l/ <i>nickel</i> /ə'krɪl.ɪk/ <i>acrylic</i> /dɪ'zʌn/ <i>design</i> /'vɪd.i.ou/ <i>video</i> /'dʒæk.ɪt/ <i>jacket</i> /'bɑ:.skɪt.bɔ:l/ <i>basketball</i>	/i/ /ník.kên/ /ʔà.khri.lɪk/ or /ʔàkhɪlɪk/	raising	/i/ /ni.kəl/ /ʔa.kri.lɪk/ /di.sain/ /fi.dio/	raising
	/i:/ /di:.sa:j/ /wi:.di:.ʔo:/	raising + lengthening		
			/e/ /ʔa.ket/ /bas.ket/	lowering
	/e/ /cék.kêt/ /bá:t.sakêt. bɔn/	lowering		

/ɑ:/ /'zen.ɑ:n/ or / 'zi:.nɑ:n/ <i>xenon</i> /bɑ:ˈ/ <i>bar</i> /kɑ:'tu:n/ or / kɑ:r'tu:n/ <i>car-</i> <i>toon</i>	/ɔ:/ /si:.nɔ:n/	raising	/ɔ:/ /se.nɔn/	raising
	/ɑ:/ /bɑ:/ /kɑ:.tu:n/	forward shifting	/a/ /bɑr/ /kɑ:r.tun/	forward shifting
/æ/ /flæʃ/ <i>flash</i> /gæŋ/ <i>gang</i> /fæn/ <i>fan</i> /skæn/ <i>scan</i> /æ.l.jə'mɪn.i.əm/ <i>aluminium</i> /'klæs.ɪk/ <i>classic</i> /gæs/ <i>gas</i>	/ɛ/ /flét/ /kéŋ/	raising	/ɛ/ /flɛs/ /gɛŋ/ /fɛn/ /skɛn/	raising
	/ɛ:/ /fɛ:n/ /sàkɛ:n/	raising + lengthening		
			/a/ /?a.lu.mi.ni- um/ /kla.sik/ /gas/	lowering
	/a/ /?a.lu:.mi:. niam /	lowering		

	/a:/ /khlá:t.sìk/ /ká:t/	lowering + lengthening		
/ɒ/ /bɒm/ <i>bomb</i> /'hɒt.dɒg/ <i>hotdog</i> /bɒs/ <i>boss</i> /'ɒn.laɪn/ <i>online</i> /'ɒ.pə.reɪ.təʳ/ <i>operator</i>	/ɔ:/ /bɔm/ /'hót.dók/     	raising	/ɔ/ /bɔm/ /'hót.dók/ /bɔs/ /'ɔn.laɪn/	raising
	/ɔ:/ /bót:t/ or / bót:s/ /'ɔ:n.laɪj/	raising + lengthening		
			/o/ /'ɒ.pə. rə.tɔr/	raising
	/o:/ /'ɒ:.pə:.re:. tə:/	raising + lengthening		
/ʊ/ /'nəʊt.bʊk/ <i>notebook</i> /'pʊd.ɪŋ/ <i>pud- ding</i> /'kæl.kjʊ.ləs/ <i>calculus</i> /'sel.jʊ.ləʳ/ <i>cellular</i>	/u/ /'nót.t.búk/ /'phút.dîŋ/	raising	/u/ /'not.bʊk/ /'puɪdɪŋ/ /'kal.ku.lus/ /'se.lu.lər/	raising

In line with what exemplified in the table, the nonnative monophthongs in English, namely: /ɜ:/, /ʌ/, /ɪ/, /ɑ:/, /æ/, /ɒ/, and /ʊ/, are altered merely based on their auditory similarities into /ə/, /a/, /i, e/, /ɔ, a/, /ɛ, a/, /ɔ, o/, and /u/ respectively. There are mainly three types of nonnative monophthong adaptation in both Thai and Indonesian: raising, lowering, and forward shifting. Vowel raising is the change of low vowels into mid/high vowels, or mid vowels into high vowels, e.g. /ɪ/ > /i/, /æ/ > /ɛ/, /ɒ/ > /ɔ/, and /ʊ/ > /u/. Those alterations can be considered vowel raising since the tongue positions are closer to the roof of the mouth when uttering the vowels /i/, /ɛ/, /ɔ/, and /u/ rather than when producing /ɪ/, /æ/, /ɒ/, and /ʊ/. The opposite of vowel raising is vowel lowering. Some examples of vowel lowering are /ʌ/ > /a/, /æ/ > /a/, and /ɪ/ > /e/. It causes the final vowels (/a/ and /e/) to have farther tongue positions from the roof of the mouth than those of the original vowels (/ʌ/, /æ/, and /ɪ/). The other type of nonnative monophthong alteration is forward shifting. It is the change of back vowels into central/front vowels, or central vowels into front vowels, as in /ɑ:/ > /a:/ (Thai) and /ɑ:/ > /a/ (Indonesian). Above all, the main difference between those in Thai and those in Indonesian is that the first are classified according to their duration (long and short) while the latter are not.

The adaptation of /ɜ:/ into /u/ in Indonesian is considered as an exception because the two monophthongs are quite distinct auditorily and are in two far-placed areas in the vowel chart (one is open-mid central unrounded vowel and

the other is close back rounded vowel). The potential reason for this adaptation to occur is the orthographic influence of English and Indonesian. The English word *furniture*, pronounced /'fɜː.nɪ.tʃə<sup>r</sup>/, is written as *furnitur* in Indonesian. In most cases, the Indonesian letter *u* is always pronounced /u/, and therefore the word *furnitur* is pronounced /fur.ni.tur/, where the English /ɜː/ is adapted into the Indonesian /u/.

Besides /ɜː/ > /u/, there are also some monophthongs whose alterations seem not to be anchored in the notion of auditory similarity. Instead, their changes look as if they were based on the writing of the words. In a manner of speaking, the words in which those monophthongs function might have been borrowed through written means. The following table lists some monophthong alterations which are prone to be affected by the writing of the words.

Table 5.21

## Monophthong Adaptation Based on Writing

English	English letter	Thai	Indonesian
/ə/ /'bær.əl/ <i>barrel</i> /'ɒk.sɪ.dʒən/ <i>oxygen</i>	letter 'e'	/e/ /ba:.ren/ /ʔɔ:k.si.cên/	/e/ /ba.rel/ /ʔok.si.gen/
/'tʃɒk.lət/ <i>chocolate</i> /ə'kaʊnt/ <i>account</i> /'sloʊ.gən/ <i>slogan</i> /ə'mer.ɪ.kə/ <i>America</i> /ə'krɪl.ɪk/ <i>acrylic</i> /və'nɪl.ə/ <i>vanilla</i> /'vɪt.ə.mɪn/ <i>vitamin</i>	letter 'a'	/ɛ/ /chók.ko:.lét/ /ɛ:/ /ʔé:k.kháw/ /salo:.ké:n/ /a/ /ʔa.me.rí.ka:/ /ʔà.khri.lìk/ or /ʔà.khli.lìk/ /a:/ /wa:.ní.la:/ /wí.ta:.mɪn/	/a/ /cək.lat/ /ʔa.kun/ /slo.gan/ /ʔa.me.ri.ka/ /ʔa.kri.lìk/ /fa.ni.la/ /fi.ta.min/
/sə'pɔ:rt/ <i>support</i> /'vaɪ.rəs/ <i>virus</i>	letter 'u'	/a/ /sáp.phò:t/ /waj.rát/	/u/ /su.pòrt/ /fi.rus/
/pə'tæs.i.əm/ <i>potassium</i> /'haɪ.drə.dʒən/ <i>hydrogen</i> /kəm'pjʊ:.tə/ <i>computer</i> /'gæl.ən/ <i>gallon</i> /'æl.kə.hɒl/ <i>alcohol</i>	letter 'o'	/o:/ /pɔ:.té:t.sîam/ /haj.dro:.cên/ /ɔ/ /khɔm.phíw.tê:/ /kɛn.lɔn/ /ɔ:/ /ʔɛw.kɔ:.hɔ:/	/o/ /pɔ.ta.sium/ /hi.dro.gen/ /ɔ/ /kɔm.pu.tər/ /ga.lɔn/ /ʔal.kɔ.hɒl/
/ɜ:/ /'fɜ:.nɪ.tʃə/ <i>furniture</i>	letter 'u'	/ə:/* /fə:.nɪ.cê:/	/u/ /fur.ni.tur/

/ʌ/ /klʌb/ <i>club</i> /ˌmʌl.tiˈmiː.di.ə/ <i>multi-media</i>	letter ‘u’	/a/* /khlàp/ /man.tiʔ.miː.dia/	/u/ /klup/ /mul.ti.me.dia/
/tʌn/ <i>ton</i>	letter ‘o’	/tan/	/ɔ/ /tɔn/

*Note: \* Exception: not influenced by the writing*

As stated earlier, the schwa /ə/ is the most variously altered one of all the English monophthongs borrowed into both Thai and Indonesian. It might be due to the fact that this sound is the most frequently occurring vowel in English words. The English schwa /ə/ is typically used to indicate unstressed syllables, regardless their orthographic letters. For that reason, this vowel often causes numerous polysyllabic words to be pronounced differently from the way they are spelled. When English words are borrowed into Thai and/or Indonesian through written mediums, the schwa of unstressed syllables is often replaced by vowels which resemble those of the fully stressed syllables corresponding to the English letters, for example: vowel /e/ when written with the letter *e*, vowel /a/ when written with the letter *a*, vowel /ɔ/ when written with the letter *o*, and so forth. In addition to the schwa, the abovementioned table also includes some other alterations that seem to be specific to Indonesian such as both /ɜ:/ and /ʌ/ which change into /u/ when written with the letter *u*, and /ʌ/ which changes into /ɔ/ when written with the letter *o*.

## 2. Diphthong & Triphthong Adaptation

A diphthong is a two contiguous vowel sounds which usually take place in the same syllable. So to say, it is a type of vowel whose initial point is not the same as its final point. To the contrary, a triphthong is another type of complex vowel sound consisting of three vowel qualities. Its articulator moves from an initial position to the second which then passes to the final. In sum, while monophthongs or pure vowels consist of one target articulator position, complex vowels have more than one: diphthongs consist of two and triphthongs consist of three.

Several kinds of diphthong and triphthong adaptation are found in the data of this research. The diphthongs are adapted in mainly four ways: monophthongization, vowel lowering, vowel raising, and fortition. The triphthongs are adapted in two manners: diphthongization and splitting. In the following table are some examples of the diphthong and triphthong adaptation of English loanwords in Thai and Indonesian.



Table 5.22  
Diphthong and Triphthong Adaptation

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/aɪ/ /faɪl/ <i>file</i> /dɪ'zain/ <i>design</i> /'vaɪ.rəs/ <i>virus</i> /'haɪ.drə.dʒən/ <i>hydrogen</i>	/a:j/ /fa:j/ /di:.sa:j/	final fortition	/ai/ /faɪl/ /di.sain/	final raising
	/aj/ /waj.rát/ /haj.dro:.cên/ or /haj.dro:. jên/	final fortition	/i/ /fi.rus/ /hi.dro.gen/	monophthongi- zation
/aʊ/ /gaʊn/ <i>gown</i> /ə'kaʊnt/ <i>account</i> /ˌdaʊn'loud/ <i>download</i> /paʊnd/ <i>pound</i>	/aw/ /ka:w/ /ʔé:k.kháw/ /da:w.lò:t/	final fortition	/au/ /gaun/	final raising
			/u/ /ʔa.kun/	monophthongi- zation
	/ɔ:/ /pɔ:n/	monophthongi- zation	/ɔ/ /dɔn.lot/ /pɔn/	monophthongi- zation
/ɔɪ/ /'kau.bɔɪ/ <i>cowboy</i> /'θaɪ.rɔɪd/ <i>thyroid</i> /'sel.jʊ.lɔɪd/ <i>celluloid</i>	/ɔ:j/ /kha:w.bɔ:j/ /thaj.rɔ:j/	final fortition	/ɔi/ /kɔ.bɔi/ /ti.rɔit/ /se.lu.lɔit/	final raising
	/ɔj/ /se:w.lu:.lɔj/	final fortition		

/oo/ /'b <u>oo</u> .liŋ/ <i>bowling</i> /'m.tr <u>oo</u> / <i>intro</i> /'v <u>oo</u> lt/ <i>volt</i>	/o:/ /'b <u>o</u> :.liŋ/ /'ʔin.thr <u>o</u> :/ /'w <u>ó</u> :w/ or / w <u>ó</u> :n/	monophthongi- zation	/o/ /'b <u>o</u> .liŋ/ /'ʔin.tr <u>o</u> /	monophthongi- zation
			/ɔ/ /'f <u>ɔ</u> l/	monophthongi- zation
/eɪ/ /'i:.m <u>e</u> ɪ/ <i>email</i> /'ɒp.ər. <u>e</u> ɪ.təʳ/ <i>operator</i> /'b <u>e</u> ɪs.b <u>ɔ</u> :l/ <i>baseball</i> /'d <u>o</u> u'm <u>e</u> m/ <i>domain</i>	/e:/ /'ʔi:.m <u>e</u> :w/ /'ʔo:.p <u>e</u> :r <u>e</u> :. t <u>ê</u> :/ /'b <u>é</u> :t.b <u>ɔ</u> n/ /'d <u>o</u> :.m <u>e</u> :n/	monophthongi- zation	/e/ /'ʔi.m <u>e</u> l/	monophthongi- zation
			/a/ /'ʔo.p <u>ə</u> .r <u>a</u> .t <u>ɔ</u> r/	monophthongi- zation
			/i/ /'b <u>i</u> s.b <u>ɔ</u> l/	monophthongi- zation
			/aɪ/ /'d <u>o</u> .m <u>a</u> ɪn/	initial lowering + final raising
/iə/ /'m <u>i</u> :.d <u>i</u> ə/ <i>media</i> /'æ.l.jə'm <u>i</u> n. <u>i</u> əɪm/ <i>alumin-</i> <i>ium</i> /'p <u>ə</u> 't <u>æ</u> s. <u>i</u> əɪm/ <i>potassium</i>	/ia/ /'m <u>i</u> :.d <u>i</u> a/ /'ʔal <u>u</u> :.m <u>i</u> :. n <u>i</u> aɪm/ /'p <u>o</u> :.t <u>é</u> :t.s <u>i</u> aɪm/	final lowering	/ia/ /'m <u>e</u> .d <u>i</u> a/	final lowering
			/iu/ /'ʔa.l <u>u</u> .m <u>i</u> .n <u>i</u> - uɪm/ /'p <u>o</u> .t <u>a</u> .s <u>i</u> uɪm/	final raising
/ioʊ/ /'v <u>i</u> d. <u>i</u> oʊ/ <i>video</i>	/i:ʔo:/ /'w <u>i</u> :.d <u>i</u> :.ʔo:/	splitting	/io/ /'f <u>i</u> .d <u>i</u> o/	diphthongization
/aɪə/ /'v <u>ɑ</u> ɪə'l <u>i</u> n/ <i>violin</i>	/aj.ʔo:/ /'w <u>a</u> j.ʔo:. <u>l</u> iɪn/	splitting	/io/ /'f <u>i</u> o. <u>l</u> iɪn/	diphthongization

Based on the examples above, many English diphthongs are simplified in Thai and Indonesian by monophthongization. It is the process where a diphthong changes into a single vowel. Monophthongization of English diphthongs that is parallel in both of the borrowing languages is the alterations of /ou/ and /ei/. In Thai, the diphthongs /ou/ and /ei/ are adapted into the long monophthongs /o:/ and /e:/ respectively, as in /'bou.liŋ/ > /bo:liŋ/ and /'i:mei/ > /ʔi:me:w/. Because Indonesian does not distinguish between long and short vowels, those two diphthongs are monophthongized into /o/ and /e/, as in /'bou.liŋ/ > /bo.liŋ/ and /'i:mei/ > /ʔi.meɫ/.

Along with monophthongization, some other diphthongs are adapted through either vowel lowering or vowel raising while retaining their diphthong forms. For instance, since /iə/ is not allowed in both Thai and Indonesian, it is adapted into the final lowered diphthong /ia/ in both languages, in which the final vowel /ə/ is changed into the lower vowel /a/. This adaptation is best exemplified by /'mi:diə/ > /mi:dia/ in Thai and /'mi:diə/ > /me.dia/ in Indonesian. In another case, the English diphthongs ending with nonnative sounds /ɪ/ and /ʊ/ in Indonesian are usually replaced with the native higher resembling sounds /i/ and /u/ respectively through vowel raising. Some examples of this are /aɪ/ > /ai/, /aʊ/ > /au/, and /ɔɪ/ > /ɔi/, as in /fail/ > /fail/, /gaun/ > /gaun/, and /'θaɪ.rɔɪd/ > /ti.rɔit/.

Instead of undergoing final raising like their counterparts in Indonesian, in Thai, the diphthongs /aɪ/, /aʊ/, /ɔɪ/ are adapted into /a:j/, /a:w/, /ɔ:j/. If in English they are followed

by any codas, the codas are deleted. This process is called final fortition or final strengthening, because the final vowels /ɪ/ and /ʊ/ are substituted by the semivowel consonants /j/ and /w/. Some examples that exhibit this adaptation in Thai are /faɪl/ > /fa:j/, /gaʊn/ > /ka:w/, and /'θaɪ.rɔɪd/ > /thaj.rɔ:j/.

In addition to the diphthongs discussed above, there are two triphthongs that can be identified from the research data. They are /iou/ and /aɪə/ which are found in the words /'vid.iou/ and /,vaɪə'lin/. In Thai, those triphthongs split up into two adjacent syllables: /iou/ > /i:.ʔo:/ and /aɪə/ > /aj.ʔo:/. Hence, the first word becomes /wi:.di:.ʔo:/ and the latter becomes /waj.ʔo:.lin/. On the contrary, Indonesian borrows those two triphthongs by diphthongizing them. Both of them change into the same diphthong /io/. The alterations of the words are thus: /'vid.iou/ > /fi.dio/ and /,vaɪə'lin/ > /fio.lin/.



# CHAPTER VI



## CHAPTER VI

### ENGLISH LOANWORDS IN INDONESIAN & THAI: MORPHOLOGICAL ADAPTATION

#### *Overview*

This chapter explicates the morphological adaptation of English loanwords in both Indonesian and Thai languages. It is divided into the following three sections:

1. Morphological Adaptation
2. Compounding
3. Ellipsis and Clipping
4. Prefixation
5. Initialism

#### **A. Morphological Adaptation**

Besides phonological adaptation, English loanwords in Thai and Indonesian also exhibit some kinds of morphological adaptation. They are changes that occur in the morphemic or word formation level. Therefore, the loanwords analyzed in this part are mostly polymorphemic. Morphological adaptation of English loanwords in Thai and Indonesian can be primarily grouped into compounding, shortening (ellipsis and clipping), prefixation, and initialism.



## B. Compounding

Compounding is the process of combining two, or more, roots to form new stems. Most of them are formed through compounding the loanwords from English with those from the borrowing languages. In order to function in sentences, the compounding is necessary as it makes the meanings of the loanwords fully understood and not ambiguous. Some English loanwords tend to be equivalently compounded in both Thai and Indonesian, with similar literal meanings and morpheme order. Below are some examples of compounding of English loanwords that are equivalent in both of the borrowing languages.

*Table 6.1*  
*Compounding that is Equivalent in Both Thai and Indonesian*

English	Thai	Indonesian
/disk/ <i>disk</i>	<b>/phè:n-dít/</b> <i>plate-disk</i>	<b>/kəpiŋ-dis/</b> or <b>/piriŋan-dis/</b> <i>plate-disk</i>
/dʒi:p/ <i>jeep</i>	<b>/rót-cí:p/</b> <i>car-jeep</i>	<b>/mobil-ʒip/</b> <i>car-jeep</i>
/'tæksi/ <i>taxi</i>	<b>/rót-théksi:/</b> <i>car-taxi</i>	<b>/mobil-taksi/</b> <i>car-taxi</i>
/'pɪkʌp/ <i>pick-up</i>	<b>/rót-píkʔâp/</b> <i>car-pickup</i>	<b>/mobil-pikʔap/</b> <i>car-pickup</i>
/dʒet/ <i>jet</i>	<b>/khrɯŋbin-cét/</b> <i>aeroplane-jet</i>	<b>/pəsawat-ʒet/</b> <i>aeroplane-jet</i>
/dʒi:nz/ <i>jeans</i>	<b>/ka:ŋke:ŋ-ji:n/</b> <i>pants-jeans</i>	<b>/cəlana-ʒin/</b> <i>pants-jeans</i>
/'leɪzər/ <i>laser</i>	<b>/sě:ŋ-le:sâ:/</b> <i>light-laser</i>	<b>/sinar-lasər/</b> <i>light-laser</i>

English	Thai	Indonesian
/dʒæz/ <i>jazz</i>	/dontri:-cé:t/ <i>music-jazz</i>	/musik-ʝes/ <i>music-jazz</i>
/pɒp/ <i>pop</i>	/dontri:-póp/ <i>music-pop</i>	/musik-pɒp/ <i>music-pop</i>
/rɒk/ <i>rock</i>	/dontri:- rók/ <i>music-pop</i>	/musik-rɒk/ <i>music-rock</i>

In the abovementioned table, it can be seen that the loanwords are combined with preceding words taken from the borrowing languages in order to create their full meanings. In the first example, the loanwords for *disk* in both Thai and Indonesian are preceded by the words for *plate*. The Thai and Indonesian words for *plate* in this case indicate the shape of the thing mentioned by the loanwords (a disk basically has the shape of a plate). Thus, the structure of the compounding is: **shape (plate) + loanword (disk)**. In the second up to the last examples, the loanwords in Thai and Indonesian are compounded with the words signifying their categories. The loanwords for *jeep*, *taxi*, and *pick-up* in Thai and Indonesian are combined with the preceding words meaning *car/vehicle* (*jeep*, *taxi*, and *pick-up* are types of *cars/vehicles*). The loanwords for *jet*, *jeans*, *laser*, and *jazz/pop/rock* in both Thai and Indonesian are preceded by the words meaning *aeroplane*, *pants*, *light*, and *music* respectively (*jet* is a type of *aeroplane*, *jeans* is a type of *pants*, *laser* is a type of *light*, and *jazz/pop/rock* is a type of *music*). The structure of the compounding is hence: **type/category (car/vehicle, aeroplane, pants, light, music) + loanword (jeep/taxi/pick-up, jet, jeans, laser, jazz/pop/rock)**.

Apart from those equivalently compounded in both Thai and Indonesian, some other English loanwords are only compounded in one of the two borrowing languages and not in the other. The words in bold in Table 6.2 are some examples of compounding that occur only in Thai.

Table 6.2:  
*Compounding that is Found Only in Thai*

English	Thai	Indonesian
/ˈrækɪt/ <i>racket</i>	<b>/máj-rékkêːt/</b> <i>stick-racket</i>	/rakɛt/ <i>racket</i>
/gaʊn/ <i>gown</i>	<b>/sâ-ka:w/</b> <i>dress-gown</i>	/gaʊn/ <i>gown</i>
/ˈtræktər/ <i>tractor</i>	<b>/rót-thréktâː/</b> <i>car-tractor</i>	/traktɔr/ <i>tractor</i>
/fæn/ <i>fan</i>	<b>/fɛ:n-khlàp/</b> <i>fan-club</i>	/fɛn/ <i>fan</i>

All the examples listed in the table above signify that the compounding of English loanwords happens more frequently in Thai than in Indonesian. In the first example, we can see that in order to say *racket* in Thai, the English loanword /rékkêːt/ need to be preceded with the Thai word /máj/ which literally means *stick/stick-shaped object*. It indicates that the compounding structure is: **shape** (*stick/stick-shaped*) + **loanword** (*racket*). In the second and third examples, the Thai words for *gown* and *tractor* are formed by combining the English loanwords /ka:w/ and /thréktâː/ with the Thai words which designate their categories, namely /sâ/ (*dress*) and /rót/ (*car/vehicle*). Thus, their pattern is: **type/category** (*dress, car/vehicle*) + **loanword** (*gown, tractor*). The last example in Thai, /fɛ:n-khlàp/, is quite

different from the others previously mentioned. It is a compound between two English loanwords: /fɛ:n/ (fan) + /khlàp/ (club). Instead of having the same meaning as the term *fan club* in English, the Thai /fɛ:n-khlàp/ as a whole simply means *fan*. It is an example of the compounding pattern: **loanword** (*fan*) + **loanword** (*club*).

In addition to per-word borrowing, there are also some borrowings of English compounds. The examples found in the data of this research are the English compounds *cowboy*, *download*, *hotdog*, *lipstick*, *notebook*, *online*, and *website*.

Table 6.3  
Borrowed English Compounds

English	Thai	Indonesian
/ˈkaʊbɔɪ/ <i>cowboy</i>	/kha:wɔɔ:j/ <i>cowboy</i>	/kɔɔbɔɪ/ <i>cowboy</i>
/ˌdaʊnˈlɔʊd/ <i>download</i>	/da:wɔ̀:t/ <i>download</i>	/dɔ̀nlot/ <i>download</i>
/ˈhɒtdɒg/ <i>hotdog</i>	/hɔ̀tdɔ̀k/ <i>hotdog</i>	/hɔ̀tdɔ̀k/ <i>hotdog</i>
/ˈlɪpstɪk/ <i>lipstick</i>	/lípstɪk/ or /lípstatɪk/ <i>lipstick</i>	/lipstick/ <i>lipstick</i>
/ˈnoʊtbʊk/ <i>notebook</i>	/nó:tbúk/ <i>notebook</i>	/notbuk/ <i>notebook</i>
/ˈɒnlaɪn/ <i>online</i>	/ʔɔ:nla:j/ <i>online</i>	/ʔɔ̀nlain/ <i>online</i>
/ˈwebsaɪt/ <i>website</i>	/wépsáj/ <i>website</i>	/situs-wep/ <i>site-web</i>

In both Thai and Indonesian, most of the afore-listed English compounds are simply adapted into inseparable non-compound units, with relatively the same meanings as those

in English. Yet, there is an exceptional case in Indonesian, in which an English compound is adapted through substituting one of its morphemes with a loanword from Portuguese and reversing the morpheme order. The English *website* is borrowed into Indonesian by substituting the morpheme for *site* with the Portuguese loanword *situs* (which was borrowed from *sítio* /'si. tʃi.u/) and then reversing the order into /situs-wep/ *site-web*.

### C. Ellipsis and Clipping

Ellipsis and clipping are two similar types of morphological adaptation, because they both are changes that basically involve shortening. Ellipsis is the shortening of a phrase or compound so that the shortened form has the former meaning of the whole phrase or compound. To the contrary, clipping is the shortening of a word without any change in its word meaning or class.

Table 6.4  
Ellipsis and Clipping

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/ˈbɑːskɪtbɔːl/ <i>basketball</i>	/bá:t/ <i>basketball</i>	clipping	/baskɛt/ <i>basketball</i>	ellipsis
/ˈbædmɪntən/ <i>badminton</i>	/bè:t/ <i>badminton</i>	clipping	/batmɪntən/ <i>badminton</i>	-
/ˈtɒmbɔɪ/ <i>tomboy</i>	/thɔ:m/ <i>tomboy</i>	ellipsis	/tɒmbɔɪ/ <i>tomboy</i>	-

Ellipsis can be found in the Thai loanword of the English compound /ˈtɒmbɔɪ/ *tomboy*, which is shortened by eliminating the morpheme /bɔɪ/. This process belongs to ellipsis since the Thai /thɔ:m/ is taken from the English word /ˈtɒm/ *Tom* in /ˈtɒmbɔɪ/ but has the same meaning as the English compound

*tomboy*. The same case also applies to the Indonesian /basket/ *basket* (morphologically equivalent to the English word /'bɑ:skɪt/ *basket*), which exhibits ellipsis by omitting the morpheme /bɔ:l/ of the English /'bɑ:skɪt-bɔ:l/ *basketball* but does not lose any meaning of the full compound.

Unlike the corresponding loanword in Indonesian, the Thai loanword /bá:t/ is a clipped form of /bá:tsakêtbɔn/, which was borrowed from the English /'bɑ:skɪt-bɔ:l/. The adaptation is considered clipping because the word /bá:t/ is equivalent to /'bɑ:s/ (a half-part of /'bɑ:skɪt/ in /'bɑ:skɪt-bɔ:l/) which cannot stand alone as a word in English. Also the Thai /bè:t/ *badminton* was created by clipping the Thai loanword /bè:tmintân/, which was borrowed from the English word /'bædmɪntən/. In Indonesian, the loanword of *badminton* undergoes neither clipping nor ellipsis.

#### D. Prefixation

The research data also reveal that both Thai and Indonesian borrow some affixed words, particularly prefixed words, from English. Prefixes are bound morphemes which are added in front of the roots (free morphemes). The prefixed words instanced in the data are the English *antibody*, *antigen*, and *multimedia*; the former two contain the prefix *anti-* while the latter one bears the prefix *multi-*. Albeit relatively similar in terms of their adaptation—all the three words are borrowed into both Thai and Indonesian—the prefixes alone are perceived differently in the two languages.

Table 6.5  
Prefixed Words Borrowed into Thai and Indonesian

English	Thai	Indonesian
/ˈæntɪbɒdi/ <i>anti-body</i>	/ʔɛ:ntɪbɔ:dɪ:/ <i>antibody</i>	/ʔantɪbɒdi/ <i>anti-body</i>
/ˈæntɪdʒen/ <i>anti-gen</i>	/ʔɛ:ntɪcɛn/ <i>antigen</i>	/ʔantɪgen/ <i>anti-gen</i>
/ˌmʌltiˈmi:diə/ <i>multi-media</i>	/ˌmantɪʔmi:dɪə/ <i>multimedia</i>	/ˌmultimedia/ <i>multi-media</i>

In Thai, /ʔɛ:ntɪbɔ:dɪ:/ *antibody*, /ʔɛ:ntɪcɛn/ *antigen*, and /ˌmantɪʔmi:dɪə/ *multimedia* seem to be apprehended as single morphemes, since the prefixes are peculiar to those English loanwords. So to say, *anti-* (แอนตี้) and *multi-* (มัลติ) cannot be singled out to prefix Thai words other than those from English and therefore are hitherto excluded from the Thai list of prefixes. Contrastingly, both *anti-* and *multi-* are broadly accepted to serve as prefixes in Indonesian. Not only in /ʔantɪbɒdi/ *antibody*, /ʔantɪgen/ *antigen*, and /ˌmultimedia/ *multimedia*, the prefixes *anti-* and *multi-* are also frequently used with other non-English origin words in Indonesian, like in /ʔantɪkarat/ *antikarat* (anti-rust), /ʔantihama/ *antihama* (anti-pest), /ˌmultiguna/ *multiguna* (multi-use), and /ˌmultitafsir/ *multitafsir* (multi-interpret).

### E. Initialism

Initialism is a word created by combining the initial letters of a phrase and pronounced as a series of letters. Since English, Thai, and Indonesian have different orthographic systems, both Thai and Indonesian have either transcribed or transliterated forms of English initialisms. In the following table are some

examples of loanwords in Thai and Indonesian created by borrowing from three English abbreviations, namely: *DJ* (disk jockey), *TV* (television), and *ATM* (automated teller machine).

Table 6.6  
Initialism Adaptation

English	Thai	Indonesian
/ˈdiːdʒeɪ/ <i>DJ</i>	/diː.ceː/ <i>DJ</i>	/di.ʝe/ <i>DJ</i>
/tiːˈviː/ <i>TV</i>	/thiː.wi/ <i>TV</i>	/ti.fiː/ <i>TV</i>
/ˌeɪ.tiːˈem/ <i>ATM</i>	/ʔeː.thiː.ʔem/ <i>ATM</i>	/ʔa.te.ʔem/ <i>ATM</i>

In the case of the Indonesian word /ʔa.te.ʔem/, it is an abbreviated form which is spelled in Indonesian alphabets (through transliteration) and stands for an Indonesian phrase that has a similar meaning to that of the English /ˌeɪ.tiːˈem/.

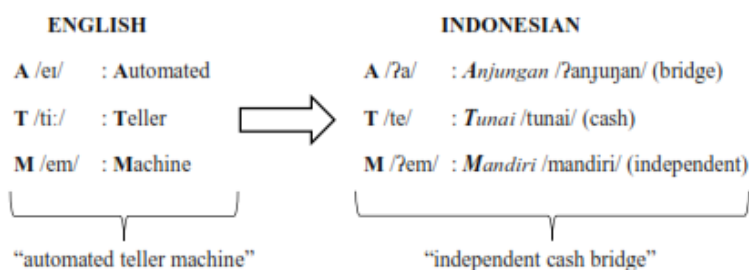


Figure 6.1  
Morphological Adaptation of the English /ˌeɪ.tiːˈem/ (*ATM*) into the Indonesian /ʔa.te.ʔem/ (*ATM*)

As we can see in the figure above, the word *ATM* in English and that in Indonesian literally do not stand for exactly the same meaning. The English *ATM* stands for the phrase *Automated*



*Teller Machine*, while the Indonesian *ATM* denotes the phrase *Anjungan Tunai Mandiri* (Independent Cash Bridge). Even though they do not have exactly the same meaning, both the English and Indonesian *ATMs* refer to the same thing: a machine, usually in a wall outside a bank, from which we can take money out of our bank account using a special card.

# CHAPTER VII



## **CHAPTER VII**

### **FINAL REMARKS**

This very last chapter concludes the work presented in this book.

It is divided into four main sections, namely:

1. Conclusions
2. Discussion
3. Implications for Language Teachers

#### **A. Conclusions**

There are several factors that contribute to the adaptation of English loanwords in Thai and Indonesian, such as phonological systems, morphological systems, and orthographic systems (when the words are transcribed or transliterated). This work focuses on the phonological and morphological adaptation of English loanwords in Thai and Indonesian.

As detailed in the findings, the phonological adaptation can be categorized into two groups: consonant adaptation (single onsets, single codas, onset clusters, coda clusters, and intervocalic consonants) and vowel adaptation (monophthongs, diphthongs, and triphthongs), while the morphological adaptation can be classified into roughly four: compounding, shortening (ellipsis and clipping), prefixation, and initialism.

## 1. Phonological Adaptation

### a. Consonants

The first type of consonants scrutinized in this research is single onsets. Single English onsets that tend to retain their phonological forms because they are also native to both Thai and Indonesian are: /b/, /d/, /f/, /s/, /m/, /n/, /h/, /l/, and /w/. Since aspiration is contrastive in Thai but not in Indonesian, single English onsets [p<sup>h</sup>], [t<sup>h</sup>], and [k<sup>h</sup>] can become either aspirated (/ph/, /th/, /kh/) or deaspirated (/p/, /t/, /k/) when borrowed into Thai while in Indonesian they always become deaspirated (/p/, /t/, /k/). Single onsets that are nonnative to the phonological systems of Thai and Indonesian are substituted by resembling onsets in the borrowing languages:

*Table 7.1*  
*Summary of Nonnative Single Onset Adaptation*

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/g/	/k/	devoicing	/g/	-
/v/	/w/	lenition: approximation	/f/	devoicing
/θ/	/th/	strengthening/fortition	/t/	strengthening/fortition
/z/	/s/	devoicing	/s/	devoicing
			/z/	-
/ʃ/	/ch/	strengthening/fortition	/sj/	clustering
/tʃ/	/ch/	strengthening/fortition	/c/	strengthening/fortition
	/c/	strengthening/fortition	/t/	strengthening/fortition
/dʒ/	/c/	strengthening/fortition	/ʃ/	strengthening/fortition
	/j/	lenition: approximation		
[ɹ]	/r/	strengthening/fortition	/r/	strengthening/fortition

If an English syllable begins with a vowel without any onset preceding it, in both Thai and Indonesian it is added with the glottal stop onset /ʔ/. This process is categorized as prothesis: Ø > ʔ / #\_\_V.

In the second group, we have single codas. There are single codas phonologically allowed in Thai and Indonesian which do not go through any alteration, namely: /m/, /n/, and /ŋ/. To the contrary, several single codas that do not exist in the borrowing languages normally undergo adaptation, as summarized in Table 7.2.

*Table 7.2*  
*Summary of Nonnative Single Coda Adaptation*

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/b/	/ḃ/	final-devoicing	/ḃ/	final-devoicing
/d/	/ḋ/	final-devoicing	/ḋ/	final-devoicing
/g/	/ḡ/	final-devoicing	/ḡ/	final-devoicing
/s/	/t/	strengthening/fortition	/s/	-
/ʃ/	/t/	strengthening/fortition	/s/	depalatalization
/l/	/n/	nasalization	/l/	-
	/w/	lenition: l-vocalization		
/r/ or [ɹ]	Ø	deletion: apocope	/r/	strengthening/fortition

Differing from those in English, not only the released stop single codas /b, d, g/ but also /p, t, k/ turn into the unreleased /ḃ, ḋ, ḡ/ respectively in both Thai and Indonesian.

The third type of consonants are onset clusters. English onset clusters which continue to have relatively the same qualities in the borrowing languages are, in Thai: /dr/, /fr/, and /fl/; and in Indonesian: /dr/, /fr/, /fl/, and /gr/. In Thai, onset clusters beginning with the

stops /p/, /t/, and /k/, such as /pl/, /pr/, /tr/, /kr/, and /kl/, are adapted into either initially aspirated (/ph/, /th/, /kh/) or initially unaspirated (/p/, /t/, /k/), while in Indonesian all those onset clusters' initial stops turn into unaspirated (/p/, /t/, /k/). In both Thai and Indonesian, the palatal approximant /j/ is not permitted to be placed in the second position of onset clusters. In Thai it is either deleted or vowelized into /i/, while in Indonesian it is always deleted. The onset cluster adaptation also includes vowel insertion (anaptyxis) that comes about only in Thai and does not occur in Indonesian. It is the insertion of the Thai vowel /a/ between sC onset clusters, such as /sp/, /st/, /sl/, and /sk/.

The fourth type of consonants are coda clusters. Most English coda clusters borrowed into both Thai and Indonesian consist of two consonants. Many of them are adapted into both borrowing languages by retaining their first consonants and omitting the subsequent consonants. In Thai there is also the case where the second consonants remain while the first consonants are deleted. Instead of deleting the first consonants of the coda clusters, Indonesians preserve them by splitting the clusters and inserting a vowel. Coda clusters' vowel addition is peculiar to those in Indonesian; in Thai they are simplified primarily by consonant deletion. As most coda clusters of English loanwords in both of the borrowing languages are reduced to single consonants, they are treated similarly to single codas. If the single

remaining consonants of the coda clusters are illicit in the phonological systems of the borrowing languages, they undergo alterations akin to the single coda adaptation.

The last group is intervocalic consonants. The phonological adaptation typical of intervocalic consonants found in this research is gemination. However it happens only to English loanwords in Thai, as in /k/ > /k.k/ or k.kh/, /p/ > /p.p/ or p.ph/, and /n/ > /n.n/ or n.nh/, and not to those in Indonesian. If the geminated sequences are phonologically not permitted in Thai, they will be adapted into homorganic sequences, as exemplified by the adaptation of the intervocalic consonants /d/, /s/ and /l/ into /t.d/, /t.s/, and /n.l/ respectively instead of /d.d/, /s.s/, and /l.l/. Rather than become geminated, English intervocalic consonants in Indonesian tend to move to the subsequent syllables to function as their onsets. It indicates the Indonesian preference for the CV syllable structure rather than the VC one.

#### b. Vowels

English monophthongs which are allowable in both Thai and Indonesian phonological systems and tend not to change are: /ə/, /i/, /ɔ/, /e/, and /u/. Nonetheless, all of them are adapted into either long or short monophthongs in Thai since vowel duration is prominently contrastive in this language. Monophthongs that are phonologically foreign to Thai and Indonesian, such as /ʌ/, /ɪ/, /ɑ:/, /æ/, /ɒ/, and /ʊ/, are normally replaced with the auditorily resembling vowels /a/, /i/ or e/, /ɔ/ or a/, /ɛ/ or a/, /ɔ/ or o/,



and /u/ respectively. As stated earlier, the main difference between those in Thai and those in Indonesian is that the former are categorized according to their duration (long and short) while the latter are not. There are also some monophthongs which seem to be altered not based on their auditory similarities. Instead, their alterations exhibit strong influence of the writing of the words. It signifies that the words in which those monophthongs function might have been borrowed through written mediums.

English diphthongs are adapted in four ways: monophthongization, vowel lowering, vowel raising, and fortition; while triphthongs are adapted in two ways: diphthongization and splitting; all of which are exemplified in the table below.

*Table 7.3*  
*Summary of Diphthong and Triphthong Adaptation*

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/aɪ/	/a:j/	final fortition	/aɪ/	final raising
	/aj/	final fortition	/i/	monophthongiza- tion
/aʊ/	/aw/	final fortition	/aʊ/	final raising
	/ɔ:/	monophthongiza- tion	/u/	monophthongiza- tion
			/ɔ/	monophthongiza- tion
/ɔɪ/	/ɔ:j/	final fortition	/ɔi/	final raising
	/ɔj/	final fortition		

/ou/	/o:/	monophthongiza- tion	/o/	monophthongiza- tion
			/ɔ/	monophthongiza- tion
/ei/	/e:/	monophthongiza- tion	/e/	monophthongiza- tion
			/a/	monophthongiza- tion
			/i/	monophthongiza- tion
			/ai/	initial lowering + final raising
/iə/	/ia/	final lowering	/ia/	final lowering
			/iu/	final raising
/iou/	/i:ʔo:/	splitting	/io/	diphthongization
/aɪə/	/aɪ.ʔo:/	splitting	/io/	diphthongization

## 2. Morphological Adaptation

### a. Compounding

Compounding of English loanwords in Thai and Indonesian are normally created by combining them with words from the borrowing languages. Some loanwords are compounded similarly in both languages, with similar literal meanings and morpheme order.

Table 7.4  
Review of Equivalent Compounding in Thai and Indonesian

English	Thai	Indonesian
/dɪsk/ <i>disk</i>	/phɛːn-dít/ <i>plate-disk</i>	/kəpiŋ-dis/ or /piriŋan-dis/ <i>plate-disk</i>
/dʒiːp/ <i>jeep</i>	/rót-cí:p/ <i>car-jeep</i>	/mobil-ʝip/ <i>car-jeep</i>
/'tæksi/ <i>taxi</i>	/rót-théksîː/ <i>car-taxi</i>	/mobil-taksi/ <i>car-taxi</i>
/'pɪkʌp/ <i>pick-up</i>	/rót-píkʔâp/ <i>car-pickup</i>	/mobil-pikʔap/ <i>car-pickup</i>
/dʒet/ <i>jet</i>	/khrɪaŋbin-cét/ <i>aeroplane-jet</i>	/pəsawat-ʝet/ <i>aeroplane-jet</i>
/dʒiːnz/ <i>jeans</i>	/kaːŋkeːŋ-jiːn/ <i>pants-jeans</i>	/cəlana-ʝin/ <i>pants-jeans</i>
/'leɪzər/ <i>laser</i>	/sɛːŋ-leːsâː/ <i>light-laser</i>	/sinar-lasər/ <i>light-laser</i>
/dʒæz/ <i>jazz</i>	/dontriː-cé:t/ <i>music-jazz</i>	/musik-ʝes/ <i>music-jazz</i>
/pɒp/ <i>pop</i>	/dontriː-póp/ <i>music-pop</i>	/musik-pɒp/ <i>music-pop</i>
/rɒk/ <i>rock</i>	/dontriː-rók/ <i>music-pop</i>	/musik-rɒk/ <i>music-rock</i>

Some other English loanwords are compounded only in Thai, whereas in Indonesian they retain their simple-word forms.

*Table 7.5*  
*Review of Compounding Found Only in Thai*

English	Thai	Indonesian
/ˈrækɪt/ <i>racket</i>	/máj-rékkêːt/ <i>stick-racket</i>	/rakɛt/ <i>racket</i>
/gaʊn/ <i>gown</i>	/sâa-ka:w/ <i>dress-gown</i>	/gaun/ <i>gown</i>
/ˈtræktə˞/ <i>tractor</i>	/rót-thréktâː/ <i>car-tractor</i>	/traktɔ˞/ <i>tractor</i>
/fæn/ <i>fan</i>	/fɛ:n-khlàp/ <i>fan-club</i>	/fɛn/ <i>fan</i>

In addition to borrowing simple words to be later compounded, Thai and Indonesian also borrow words which are already in the form of compounds in English, such as *cowboy*, *download*, *hotdog*, *lipstick*, *notebook*, *online*, and *website*.

*Table 7.6*  
*Review of Borrowed English Compounds*

English	Thai	Indonesian
/ˈkaʊbɔɪ/ <i>cowboy</i>	/kha:wɔɔːj/ <i>cowboy</i>	/kɔɔɔɪ/ <i>cowboy</i>
/ˌdaʊnˈləʊd/ <i>download</i>	/da:włò:t/ <i>download</i>	/dɔnlot/ <i>download</i>
/ˈhɒtdɒɡ/ <i>hotdog</i>	/hótɔ̀k/ <i>hotdog</i>	/hɔtdɔk/ <i>hotdog</i>
/ˈlɪpstɪk/ <i>lipstick</i>	/lípstìk/ or /lípsatìk/ <i>lipstick</i>	/lipstick/ <i>lipstick</i>
/ˈnoʊtbʊk/ <i>notebook</i>	/nó:tbúk/ <i>notebook</i>	/notbuk/ <i>notebook</i>

English	Thai	Indonesian
/ˈɒnlam/ <i>online</i>	/ʔɔːnlaːj/ <i>online</i>	/ʔɔnlain/ <i>online</i>
/ˈwebsaɪt/ <i>website</i>	/wépsáj/ <i>website</i>	/si- tus-wep/ <i>site-web</i>

b. Ellipsis and Clipping

Ellipsis is the shortening of a phrase or compound so that the shortened form has the former meaning of the whole phrase or compound, as epitomized by the Thai /thɔːm/ (tomboy) and the Indonesian /basket/ (basketball). On the contrary, clipping is the shortening of a word without any change in its word meaning or class, as in the Thai /bá:t/ (basketball) and /bè:t/ (badminton).

Table 7.7  
*Review of Ellipsis and Clipping*

English	Thai	Process	Indonesian	Process
/ˈbɑːskɪtbɔːl/ <i>basketball</i>	/bá:t/ <i>basketball</i>	clipping	/basket/ <i>basketball</i>	ellipsis
/ˈbædmɪntən/ <i>badminton</i>	/bè:t/ <i>badminton</i>	clipping	/batmɪntən/ <i>badminton</i>	-
/ˈtɒmbɔɪ/ <i>tomboy</i>	/thɔːm/ <i>tomboy</i>	ellipsis	/tɒmbɔɪ/ <i>tomboy</i>	-

c. Prefixation

Prefixation is the addition of a bound morpheme in front of a free morpheme. It is revealed that both Thai and Indonesian borrow some prefixed words from English, namely *antibody* (*anti-* + *body*), *antigen* (*anti-* + *gen*), and

*multimedia* (*multi- + media*). In Thai those words become single morphemes, whereas in Indonesian they are still perceived as prefixed structures.

*Table 7.8*  
*Review of Prefixed-Word Borrowing*

English	Thai	Indonesian
/ˈæntɪbɒdi/ <i>anti-body</i>	/ʔɛ:ntɪbɔ:dɪ:/ <i>antibody</i>	/ʔantibɒdi/ <i>anti-body</i>
/ˈæntɪdʒen/ <i>anti-gen</i>	/ʔɛ:ntɪçɛn/ <i>antigen</i>	/ʔantigen/ <i>anti-gen</i>
/ˌmʌltɪˈmi:diə/ <i>multi-media</i>	/mantɪʔmi:dɪa/ <i>multimedia</i>	/multimedia/ <i>multi-media</i>

d. Initialism

When a word is formed through combining the initial letters of a phrase and pronounced as a series of letters, it is called initialism. Both Thai and Indonesian have either transcribed or transliterated forms of English initialisms, such as *DJ* (disk jockey), *TV* (television), and *ATM* (automated teller machine).

*Table 7.9*  
*Review of Initialism Borrowing*

English	Thai	Indonesian
/ˈdiːdʒeɪ/ <i>DJ</i>	/di:ce:/	/di.ʒe/
/ti:ˈvi:/ <i>TV</i>	/thi:wi/	/ti.fi:/
/ˌeɪ.tɪˈem/ <i>ATM</i>	/ʔe:thi:ʔem/	/ʔa.te.ʔem/

## B. Discussion

Based on the findings and conclusions, there are some noteworthy points that can be touched upon here. They are:

### 1. Non-native Sound Adaptation

In agreement with Nacaskul (1986), Kenstowich & Suchato (2006), Rungruang (2008), Widayaningsih (2010), and Rachmiati (2011), this research finds that English sounds which share the same phonemic characteristics with those in Thai and Indonesian tend to be retained when borrowed into the two languages. On the other hand, English sounds that are non-permissible in the phonological systems of Thai and/or Indonesian usually undergo changes which roughly fall into three categories: alterations, deletions, and insertions. Those foreign sounds are adapted in such a way that the Thai or Indonesian forms have the closest qualities to them.

### 2. /r/ Sounds and Glottal Stop /ʔ/ Adaptation

English, Thai, and Indonesian have different types of /r/. In English, the sound /r/ is actually an alveolar approximant [ɹ]. Contrariwise, both the Thai /r/ and Indonesian /r/ are in the forms of alveolar trill [r]. In accordance with Rungruang (2008), this research shows that the Thai /r/ can be either pronounced or sometimes unpronounced, or even replaced by sound [l], especially in informal speech. The loanword for *free* in Thai, for instance, has 3 alternate pronunciations: [fri:], [fli:], and [fi:]. The English coda /r/ is usually deleted in Thai, as in /ba:r/ *bar* > /ba:/ and /'nju:.kliər/ *nuclear* > /niw.khliə/, because the Thai /r/ never occurs in coda positions. Quite different from its Thai counterpart, the Indonesian /r/ is always clearly pronounced and can occur in all positions.

In both Thai and Indonesian, it is found that the glottal stop /ʔ/ is always situated before a vowel, as an onset of the syllable, when there is no other consonant preceding it, e.g. /'pík.ʔp/ *pick-up* > /pík.ʔâp/ in Thai and /pík.ʔap/ in Indonesian. In informal Indonesian, [ʔ] also often functions as an allophone of the coda /k/. For example, the loanword for “plastic” in Indonesian can be pronounced [plas.tík] or [plas.tiʔ].

### 3. Coda Devoicing

Coda devoicing is the process where voiced consonants become voiceless when they are in coda positions. Concurring with several previous studies, such as Bickner (1986), Nacaskul (1986), Kenstowich & Suchato (2006), Rungruang (2008), Widayaningsih (2010), and Rachmiati (2011), this research reveals that coda devoicing occurs in both Thai and Indonesian. Some examples of coda devoicing of English loanwords in the two languages are: /b, d, g/ (voiced) > /p, t, k/ (voiceless).

### 4. Unreleased Stop Codas

Unlike those in English, final stop consonants in both Thai and Indonesian have no audible release. As a result, final released stops in English tend to change to unreleased ones when borrowed into both Thai and Indonesian. Therefore, the voiceless codas mentioned in the previous section are more precisely written as [p̚, t̚, k̚] (unreleased).

### 5. Aspirated vs. Unaspirated Consonants

As stated earlier, in Thai, aspiration is one of its contrastive features. In line with Rungruang (2008), this



research finds that in the adaptation of English onsets, Thai aspiration is unpredictable. English onsets therefore can be either aspirated or unaspirated when borrowed into Thai. In coda positions, Thai consonants are unaspirated.

In contrast, Indonesian does not have aspiration as its contrastive feature. Indonesian consonants are basically unaspirated and therefore all English aspirated consonants are deaspirated when borrowed into Indonesian.

6. Vowel Length Adaptation

While vowel length does not necessarily affect word meanings in English (as posited by Yavas (2011), English vowels differ primarily based on whether they are tense or lax), in Thai it is prominently contrastive whereas in Indonesian it is not. For that reason, this study discovers that vowel length adaptation tends to occur only in Thai.

7. Ways of Borrowing and English Schwa /ə/ Adaptation

Like what has been identified by Bickner (1986) and Nacaskul (1986), this study shows that the ways words were borrowed, whether through written or spoken mediums, influence the pronunciation of those words. However, Bickner and Nacaskul focused their attention hugely on tone placement in assuming the ways words were borrowed into Thai. Something new that has been discovered in this research is that the phonological adaptation of the English schwa /ə/ is an indicator, in both Thai and Indonesian, of whether a loanword was borrowed through written or spoken modes.

The English schwa /ə/ is the most frequently occurring vowel in English and typically used to indicate unstressed syllables, regardless their orthographic letters. For that reason, this vowel often causes numerous polysyllabic words to be pronounced differently from the way they are spelled. Thus we can assume that if the English schwa /ə/ retains its properties when incorporated into Thai and/or Indonesian, the loanwords might be borrowed through spoken mediums. On the other hand, if the schwa /ə/ is replaced by the Thai and/or Indonesian vowels that resemble the fully stressed syllables corresponding to the orthographic English letters, the loanwords might be borrowed through written means.

8. Compounding as a Prominent Morphological Adaptation in Thai and Indonesian

Lohakart (2009) states that Thais use loan blend (loanwords combined with already existing words in the language) to emphasize the meanings of English loanwords and make those words more comprehensible. In this research, it is found to be the most prominent morphological adaptation of English loanwords not only in Thai but also in Indonesian.

Loan blend is also referred to by Payne (2006) as compounding—the process of combining two, or more, roots to form new stems. Some English loanwords in Thai and Indonesian are adapted by being compounded with the words from the borrowing languages. In order to function in sentences, the compounding is necessary as it makes the meanings of the loanwords well-understood

and unambiguous. Many of the compounding patterns are equivalent in both Thai and Indonesian (with similar literal meanings and morpheme order).

9. Morphological Shortening

According to Nacaskul (1986), reduction of syllables or shortening of long words occasionally occurs in the adaptation of English loanwords in Thai. This phenomenon is called ellipsis and/or clipping in this research. Based on the data, it can be concluded that morphological shortening can be found in the English loanword adaptation of both Thai and Indonesian. However, shortening occurs more often in Thai than in Indonesian. This might indicate the Thai's preference for monosyllabic structures and the Indonesian's inclination toward polysyllabic structures.

10. Borrowed Prefixes

Although both Thai and Indonesian morphologically employ prefixation as one of their derivational properties, this study finds that only Indonesian is given to borrowing English prefixes and combining them with the native roots or non-English origin roots. In Thai, English prefixes such as *anti-* and *multi-* tend to be found attached only to English roots in the loanwords—not to native Thai words or loanwords other than from English.

**C. Implications for Language Teachers**

Firstly, this work implies the importance of considering the patterns of phonological and morphological adaptation of English loanwords in Thai and Indonesian for English language teachers

in Thailand and Indonesia, because those patterns can help them to predict the phonological and morphological difficulties that might be faced by their students. Secondly, Thai language teachers in Indonesia and Indonesian language teachers in Thailand should introduce their students with the comparison between English loanwords in Thai and those in Indonesian in order to help them comprehend the similarities and differences between English loanwords in the two languages, and to ease their hitches in mastering the words borrowed from English.



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## APPENDICES

### Appendix I: English Loanwords in Indonesian (Written)

1. Akun
2. Akrilik
3. Alkohol
4. Aluminium
5. Amerika
6. Amfetamin
7. Antibodi
8. Antigen
9. ATM
10. Badminton
11. Bar
12. Barel
13. Bisbol
14. Basket
15. Beta
16. Bil
17. Bilyar
18. Bom
19. Bonus
20. Bos
21. Boling
22. Kabin
23. Cake
24. Kalkulus

25. Kartun
26. Sel
27. Seluler
28. Seluloid
29. Semen
30. Cek
31. Ceri
32. Klorin
33. Coklat
34. Klasik
35. Klub
36. Kokain
37. Koktail
38. Komputer
39. Konkret
40. Kopi
41. Konter
42. Koboi
43. Krim
44. Kredit
45. Disain
46. Keping dis
47. DJ
48. Dolar
49. Domain
50. Donat
51. Download
52. Drakula

53. Elektronik
54. Email
55. Fan
56. Free
57. Fail
58. Film
59. Flash
60. Folder
61. Furnitur
62. Galon
63. Game
64. Geng
65. Gas
66. Gay
67. Gir
68. Jerman
69. Golf
70. Gaun
71. Hotdog
72. Hotel
73. Hidrogen
74. Internet
75. Intro
76. Jazz
77. Jin (Celana Jin)
78. Jip
79. Jeli (Jelly)
80. Jet



81. Jaket
82. Laser
83. Level
84. Lift
85. Link
86. Lipstik
87. Loker
88. Media
89. Meeting
90. Modem
91. Mongoloid
92. Mouse
93. Multimedia
94. Net
95. Nikel
96. Not
97. Notebook
98. Nuklir
99. Online
100. Operator
101. Oksigen
102. Persen
103. Pickup (Mobil pickup)
104. Plaster
105. Plastik
106. Platinum
107. Poker
108. Pop

- 109. Poster
- 110. Potasium
- 111. Pon
- 112. Program
- 113. Puding
- 114. Raket
- 115. Rim
- 116. Rock
- 117. Romantik
- 118. Rugbi
- 119. Scan
- 120. Skrip
- 121. Seks
- 122. Seksi
- 123. Syok
- 124. Shopping
- 125. Slogan
- 126. Soda
- 127. Solo
- 128. Sup
- 129. Spektrum
- 130. Sponsor
- 131. Steak
- 132. Steroid
- 133. Stiker
- 134. Suplai
- 135. Suport
- 136. Taksi

- 137. Tim
- 138. Teknik
- 139. Tenis
- 140. Tiroid
- 141. Tomboi
- 142. Ton
- 143. Traktor
- 144. Tutor
- 145. TV
- 146. Unit
- 147. Vanila
- 148. Video
- 149. Vila
- 150. Violin
- 151. Virus
- 152. Visa
- 153. Vitamin
- 154. Volt
- 155. Web
- 156. Situs web
- 157. Wiski
- 158. Wig
- 159. Xenon
- 160. Zig-zag

## Appendix II: English Loanwords in Thai (Written)

1. แอคเคาต์
2. อะคริลิค
3. แอลกอฮอล์
4. อลูมิเนียม
5. อเมริกา
6. แอมเฟตามีน
7. แอนติบอดี
8. แอนติเจน-
9. เอทีเอ็ม
10. แบดมินตัน
11. บาร์
12. บาร์เรล
13. เบสบอล
14. บาสเกตบอล, บาส
15. เบต้า
16. บิล
17. บิลเลียด
18. บอมบ์
19. โบนัส
20. บอส
21. โบว์ลิง
22. เคบิน
23. เค้ก
24. วิชาแคลคูลัส
25. การ์ตูน
26. เซลล์

26. เซลล์
27. เซลลูลาร์
28. เซลลูลอยด์
29. ซีเมนต์
30. เชื้อ
31. เซอร์รี่
32. คลอรีน
33. ช็อคโกแลต
34. คลาสสิก
35. คลับ
36. โคเคน
37. คีอิกเทล
38. คอมพิวเตอร์
39. คอนกรีต
40. ก้อปปี
41. เคาน์เตอร์
42. คาวบอย
43. ครีม
44. เครดิต
45. ดีไซน์
46. แผ่นดิสก์
47. ดีเจ
48. ดอลลาร์
49. โดเมน
50. โดนท์
51. ดาวน์โฮลด์
52. แดรกควิลลา
53. อิเล็กทรอนิกส์

54. อีเมลล์
55. แฟนคลับ
56. ฟรี
57. ไฟล์
58. फिल्म्
59. แฟลชีช
60. โฟลเดอร์
61. เพอร์นิเจอร์
62. แกลลอน
63. เกม
64. แก๊ง
65. แก๊ส, ก๊าซ
66. เกย์
67. เกียร์
68. เยอรมัน
69. กอล์ฟ
70. เสือกาวัน
71. ฮอทดอก
72. โอเต็ล
73. ไฮโดรเจน
74. อินเทอร์เน็ต, อินเทอร์เน็ต
75. อินโทร
76. เพลงแจ๊ส
77. กางเกงยีนส์
78. รถจี๊ป
79. เยลลี่
80. เครื่องเจ็ท
81. เสือแจ๊คเก็ต

82. เลเซอร์
83. เลเวล
84. ลิฟท์
85. ลิ้งค์
86. ลิปสติก
87. ลีอกเกอร์
88. มีเดีย
89. มีตติ้ง
90. มองโกลอยด์
91. โมเต็ม
92. ม้าส์
93. มัลติมีเดีย
94. เน็ต
95. นิเกิล
96. โน้ต
97. โน้ตบุ๊ก
98. นิวเคลียร์
99. ออนไลน์
100. โอเปอเรเตอร์
101. ออกซิเจน
102. เพอร์เซนต์
103. รถปิคอัพ
104. พลาสเตอร์
105. พลาสติก
106. แพลทินัม
107. ป็อกเกอร์
108. เพลงป๊อป
109. โปสเตอร์

110. โปแตสเซียม
111. ปอนด์
112. โปรแกรม
113. พุดดิ้ง
114. ไม้เรียวเกด
115. รีม
116. เพลงร็อค
117. โรมันติก
118. รักบี้
119. สแกน
120. สคริปต์
121. เช็กส์
122. เช็กชี
123. ช็อก
124. ช้อปปีง
125. สโลแกน
126. โซดา
127. โซโล
128. ซุป
129. สเปกตรัม
130. สปอนเซอร์
131. เสตีก
132. สเตียร์รอยด์
133. สตีกเกอร์
134. ซัพพลาย
135. ซัพพอร์ต
136. รถแท็กซี่
137. ทิม



- 138. เทคนิค
- 139. เทนนิส
- 140. ไทรอยด์
- 141. ทอมบอย / ทอม
- 142. ต้น
- 143. รถแทรกเตอร์
- 144. ดิวเตอร์
- 145. ที่วี
- 146. ยูนิท
- 147. วานิลลา
- 148. วิทยุ

### Appendix III: English Loanwords in Thai and Indonesian (Phonetic Transcription)

	ENGLISH	THAI	INDONESIAN
1.	Account	ʔé:kkháw	ʔakun
2.	Acrylic	ʔàkhrilik / ʔàkhlilik	ʔakrilik
3.	Alcohol	ʔɛwko:hɔ:	ʔalkohɔl
4.	Aluminium	ʔalu:mi:niam	ʔaluminium
5.	America	ʔame:ríka:	ʔamerika
6.	Amphetamine	ʔɛ:mfe:ta:mi:n	ʔamfetamin
7.	Antibody	ʔɛ:ntibɔ:dí:	ʔantibodi
8.	Antigen	ʔɛ:nticén	ʔantigen
9.	ATM	ʔe:thi:ʔem	ʔateʔem
10.	Badminton	bè:tmintân (bè:t)	batmintɔn
11.	Bar	ba:	bar
12.	Barrel	ba:ren / ba:rew	barel
13.	Baseball	bé:tbɔn / bé:sbɔn	bisbɔl
14.	Basketball	bá:tsakétbɔn (bá:t)	basket
15.	Beta	be:tâ:	beta

16.	Bill	bil	bin	bil
17.	Billiard	'bɪliəd / 'bɪljəd	binliat	biljar
18.	Bomb	bɒm	bɒm	bɒm
19.	Bonus	'bɒnəs	bo:nát	bonus
20.	Boss	bɒs	bɔ́:t / bɔ́:s	bɔs
21.	Bowling	'bɔʊlɪŋ	bo:lɪŋ	bolɪŋ
22.	Cabin	'kæbm	khe:bɪn	kabin
23.	Cake	keɪk	khé:k	kek
24.	Calculus	'kælkjʊləs	khɛ:wkhu:lát	kalkulus
25.	Cartoon	kɑ:'tu:n / kɑ:r'tu:n	ka:tu:n	kartun
26.	Cell	sel	se:l / se:w	sel
27.	Cellular	'seljʊləɹ	se:wlu:lá:	seluler
28.	Celluloid	'seljʊləɪd	se:wlu:lɔj	seluloit
29.	Cement	sɪ'ment	si:men	səmen
30.	Check	tʃek	chék	cek
31.	Cherry	'tʃeri	chə:rɪ: / chə:lɪ:	ceri
32.	Chlorine	'klɔ:rɪ:n	khɔ:rɪ:n / khɔ:li:n	klɔrin
33.	Chocolate	'tʃɒklət	chɔ́kko:lét	cɔ́klat

34. Classic	'klæsɪk	khɫá:t.sɪk	klasik
35. Club	klʌb	khɫàp	klup
36. Cocaine	kou'keɪn	kho:khe:n	kokain
37. Cocktail	'kɒktɪl	khókthe:n / khókthe:w	kɒktail
38. Computer	kəm'pjʊ:tər	khəmpʰíwtê:	kəmpʊtər
39. Concrete	'kɒŋkri:t / 'kɒŋkri:t	khɔ:nkri:t / khɔ:nkɪ:t	kəŋkrit
40. Copy	'kɒpi	kóppî:	kəpi
41. Counter	'kaʊntər	kháwtê:	kəntər
42. Cowboy	'kaʊbɔɪ	kha:wɔɔ:j	kəbɔɪ
43. Cream	kri:m	khri:m / khli:m / khi:m	krɪm
44. Credit	'kredit	khre:dɪt / khe:dɪt	kredit
45. Design	dɪ'zaɪn	di:sa:j	disain
46. Disk	dɪsk	phê:ndís / phê:ndít	kəpiŋdis / piriŋandis
47. DJ	'di:dʒeɪ	di:ce:	dɪʒe
48. Dollar	'dɒləɹ	dɒnlâ:	dɒlar
49. Domain	dou'meɪn	do:me:n	domain
50. Donut	'daʊnʌt	do:nát	donat
51. Download	ˌdaʊn'lʌʊd	da:wɫò:t	dənlɔt

52.	Dracula	'drakjələ	dré:kkhiwla:	drakula
53.	Electronic	ɪˌlek'trɒnik	ʔilékthɾɔ:nìk / ʔilékthɾo:nìk	ʔelektronìk
54.	Email	'i:meɪl	ʔi:me:w	ʔimel
55.	Fan	fæn	fɛ:nkhlàp	fɛn
56.	Free	fri:	fri: / fli: / fi:	fri
57.	File	faɪl	fa:j	fail
58.	Film	fɪlm	fɪ:m	filəm
59.	Flash	flæʃ	flét	flɛs
60.	Folder	'fəʊl.də	flo:də: / fo:ndə:	foldər
61.	Furniture	'fɜ:ntʃər	fə:nɪcə:	furnitur
62.	Gallon	'gælən	kɛnlɒn	galɒn
63.	Game	geɪm	ke:m	gem
64.	Gang	gæŋ	kéŋ	gɛŋ
65.	Gas	gæs	ká:t / ké:t	gas
66.	Gay	geɪ	ke:	ge
67.	Gear	gɪər / gɪr	kia	gir
68.	German	'dʒɜ:mən	jə:raman	ʔerman
69.	Golf	gɒlf	kóp / kóf	gɔləf

70.	Gown	gaun	sɪaka:w	gaun
71.	Hotdog	'hɒtdɒg	hɔ́tdɔ́k	hɒtdɔ́k
72.	Hotel	hou'tel	ho:ten	hotel
73.	Hydrogen	'haɪdrədʒən	haidro:cɛn / haidro:jɛn	hidrogen
74.	Internet	'ɪntənɛt / 'ɪntər_nɛt	ʔɪnthə:nèt / ʔɪntə:nèt	ʔɪntərnɛt
75.	Intro	'ɪntroʊ	ʔɪnthro:	ʔɪntro
76.	Jazz	dʒæz	phle:ŋcɛ:t / phle:ŋcɛ:s	ʔɛs
77.	Jeans	dʒi:nz	ka:ŋke:ŋji:n	cəlanajin
78.	Jeep	dʒi:p	rótci:p	ʔip
79.	Jelly	'dʒɛli	jenlí:	ʔeli
80.	Jet	dʒet	khɾiʔɒnbincét	ʔet
81.	Jacket	'dʒækɪt	cɛ́kkét	ʔaket
82.	Laser	'leɪzər	le:sâ:	lasər
83.	Level	'levəl	le:wê:w	lefəl
84.	Lift	lɪft	líp / líf	líf
85.	Link	lɪŋk	líŋ	líŋ
86.	Lipstick	'lɪpstɪk	lípstɪk / lípsatɪk	lipstik
87.	Locker	'lɒkər	lókkâ:	lɒkər

88.	Media	'mi:diə	mi:diə	media
89.	Meeting	'mi:tiŋ	mí:ttŋ	mitiŋ
90.	Modem	'moudəm	mo:dem	modəm
91.	Mongoloid	'mɒŋgələɪd	mɔ:ŋko:lɔ:j	mɒŋoloit
92.	Mouse	maʊs	máw	mɔs
93.	Multimedia	'mʌlti'mi:diə	mantʔmi:diə	multimedia
94.	Net	net	nét	net
95.	Nickel	'nɪkl	níkkən	nikəl
96.	Note	nout	nó:t	not
97.	Notebook	'nɒtbʊk	nó:tbúk	notbuk
98.	Nuclear	'nju:kliə / 'nu:kli:ə	niwkhliə	nuklir
99.	Online	'ɒnlain	ʔɔ:nla:j	ʔɔnlain
100.	Operator	'ɒpəreitə	ʔo:pə:re:tə:	ʔopəratər
101.	Oxygen	'ɒksɪdʒən	ʔɔ:ksicén	ʔoksigen
102.	Percent	pə'sent / pər'sent	pə:sen	pəsen
103.	Pick-up	'pɪkʌp	rótpíkʔap	mobilpikʔap
104.	Plaster	'plɑ:stər / 'plæs:tər	phlá:stə: / phá:stə:	plastər / plestər
105.	Plastic	'plæstɪk	phlá:stɪk / phá:stɪk	plastik

106. Platinum	'plætɪnəm	phlɛ:thínám / phlɛ:thínám	platinum
107. Poker	'poukəʳ	pó:kkâ:	pokər
108. Pop	pɒp	phle:ŋpóp	pɒp
109. Poster	'poustəʳ	pò:ttê: / pó:ttê: / pò:stê:	postər
110. Potassium	pə'tæsiəm	po:té:tsiám	potasium
111. Pound	paund	pɔ:n	pɒn
112. Program	'prougræm	pro:krɛ:m / po:kɛ:m	program
113. Pudding	'puɔɪŋ	phútdîŋ	pudiŋ
114. Racket	'rækt	májrɛkkèt	raket
115. Ream	ri:m	ri:m	rim
116. Rock	rɒk	phle:ŋrók	rɔk
117. Romantic	rou'mæntɪk	ro:mɛ:ntik	romantik
118. Rugby	'rʌɡbi	rákbi:	rukbi
119. Scan	skæn	sàkɛ:n	sken
120. Script	skript	sàkhríp / sàkhíp	skrip
121. Sex	seks	sék	seks
122. Sexy	'seksi	séksí:	seksi
123. Shock	ʃɒk	chók	sjɔk



124. Shopping	'ʃɒpɪŋ	chópɸɪŋ	sjɔpɪŋ
125. Slogan	'sləʊɡən	salɔ:kɛ:n	slogan
126. Soda	'səʊdə	so:da:	soda
127. Solo	'səʊləʊ	so:lô:	solo
128. Soup	su:p	súp	sup
129. Spectrum	'spektrəm	sàpéktrám / sàpéktám	spektrum
130. Sponsor	'spɒnsər	sapɔ:nsê:	sponsɔr
131. Steak	steɪk	sàték	stek
132. Steroid	'stɛrɔɪd	sàtiarɔ:j	stɛrɔɪt
133. Sticker	'stɪkər	satɪkkâ:	stikər
134. Supply	sə'plai	sápphla:j / sáppha:j	suplai
135. Support	sə'pɔ:t / sə'pɔ:rt	sápphò:t	supɔrt
136. Taxi	'tæksi	rótthéksí:	taksi
137. Team	tɪ:m	thi:m	tim
138. Technique	tek'nɪk	thékɪk	teknik
139. Tennis	'tenɪs	thennít	tenis
140. Thyroid	'θaɪrɔɪd	thajrɔ:j	tirɔɪt
141. Tomboy	'tɒmbɔɪ	thɔ:mbɔ:j / thɔ:m	tɒmbɔɪ

142. Ton	tan	tan	tən
143. Tractor	'træktər	rótthréktá:	traktər
144. Tutor	'tju:tər	tiwtâ:	tutər
145. TV	ti'vi:	thi:wi:	tifi
146. Unit	'ju:nit	ju:nit	ʔunit
147. Vanilla	və'nilə	wa:nila:	fanila
148. Video	'viديو	wi:di:fo:	fidio
149. Villa	'vilə	winlâ:	fila
150. Violin	ˌvaɪə'lin	wajʔo:lin	fiolin
151. Virus	'vaɪrəs	wajrát	firus
152. Visa	'vi:zə	wi:sâ:	fisa
153. Vitamin	'vitəmin	wíta:min	fitamin
154. Volt	voult	wó:n / wó:w	fəl
155. Web	web	wép	wep
156. Website	'websait	wépsáj	wepsait (situswep)
157. Whiskey	'wiski	wítsakî:	wiski
158. Wig	wig	wík	wik
159. Xenon	'zena:n ('zi:na:n)	sì:nó:n	senon
160. Zigzag	'zigzæg	śíksék	zikzak



## ABOUT THE AUTHOR



**Ignatius Tri Endarto** currently teaches at the Department of English Language Education, Universitas Kristen Duta Wacana, Indonesia. Previously, he has taught both English and Indonesian languages for a couple of years in Thailand. His research focuses primarily on areas pertinent to linguistics and language education.

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